The Nation.

NEW YORK, THURSDAY, JANUARY 29, 1891.

The Week.

THE Force Bill was again shelved in the Senate on Monday, through the passage of a resolution to take up the Apportionment Bill in place of the proposed rule introducing the closure, which rule was brought forward solely and avowedly as a device to secure favorable action upon the Force Bill. Six Republican Senators voted with the Democrats, namely, Cameron of Pennsylvania, Washburn of Minnesota, Teller and Wolcott of Colorado, and Stewart and Jones of Nevada); a seventh (Ingalls of Kansas) was paired on the same side; and an eighth (Stanford of California), who was absent in this city and unpaired, announces that he would have voted with the Democrats if present. In other words, if all of the 88 Senators had been present, 45 would have voted in favor of shelving the Force Bill and 43 for continuing the fight to pass it, even at the expense of overthrowing all the rules and traditions of the Senate for a century. The result is accepted by all good judges in Washington as the final defeat of the Force Bill. The only way in which it could ever get before the Senate again would be through a change of base on the part of one of the eight Republican recalcitrants. Ingalls is the only man who can be suspected of capacity for such conduct, and it is not to be expected even of Ingalls. Moreover, there are believed to be other Republicans than the eight now openly against the Force Bill who will never lift a finger to get it before the Senate again now that it is shelved. Finally, time itself is a most effective ally of its opponents. Only twenty-nine legislative days remain before the Fifty-first Congress expires by limitation, and the growing popular demand that Senators and Representatives shall devote every hour of these few days to the hitherto neglected public business will render it constantly more easy to keep this purely partisan measure in the background. There is, consequently, good reason to believe that the danger of its ever becoming a law is now past.

The Connecticut Republicans furnish an exquisite bit of irony in sending back Senator O. H. Platt to vote for Force Bills and talk about the Mississippi Constitution and electoral irregularities at the South. In the first place, Connecticut is now herself enjoying the "irregularity" of three Governors, without any constitutional power to eliminate two of them. Moreover, in the joint legislative Assembly that reëlected Senator Platt on Wednesday week, he was supported by 141 members, representing only 73,144 votes in their towns and Senatorial districts, while he was opposed by 134 members, representing 195,840 votes. His own election thus offers Mr. Platt a capital text for explaining the practical difference between the disfranchisement of ignorant colored voters in Mississippi and the constitutional disfranchisement of intelligent white voters in Connecticut.

There can be no doubt that the anticipation of a silver crisis has already led to a shrinkage of the Treasury stock of gold to the extent of forty-three millions since July 31, 1890. There is no room to doubt that any nearer approach of the crisis will cause the depletion to go on at a more rapid rate. Nor is there much room to doubt that the present silver law will be effectual to impose the silver standard upon the country in time without the formality of free coinage. It is only a question of the income and outgo of the National Treasury. For all purposes of gold payments the expenditures for silver have exactly the same effect as the expenditures for pensions, or for battle-ships, or for river and harbor improvements. Although the silver bullion is paid for with legal-tender certificates, the Government has to take them back in payment of customs and internal revenue, and when these certificates become excessive in amount, the Treasury will be compelled to pay them in the settlement of its Clearing-house balances, and then the silver crisis will have come. But before any such eventuality shall have actually dawned, the public will have anticipated it by a run on the Treasury for gold. How much time will be required under existing laws to bring about this result, nobody can safely predict, so much depends upon the resources, present and prospective, of the Treasury. When the national-bank redemption fund was turned into the Treasury, a resource was added sufficient in amount to pay for at least a year's purchases of silver bullion. Therefore it cannot be said that the silver standard is imminent. But it is coming unless some step is taken to ward it off. The step to be taken is none other than the repeal of the present silver law, and it may be said also that it will be not more difficult in a political sense to do this than to stop the free-coinage madness. Whatever accomplishes the latter will suffice for the former also. This is made manifest by the tone of the silver newspapers, nearly all of which are disgusted with the present law, and are now for free coinage or nothing.

Those Democrats in Congress who are tempted to abandon the traditional ground of the Democratic party regarding sound money might reread with profit the excellent statement of orthodox doctrine made by the late Daniel Manning in his report as Secretary of the Treasury in 1885. In arguing against the continued coinage of silver dollars, Mr. Manning pointed out how the depreciation which must some time come would harm most of all the poor workingmen of the country. "A cheaper dollar for workingmen of the United States," he said, "means a poorer dollar. The daily wages of our workingmen and workingwomen are by far the largest, by far the most important, aggregate of wealth to be affected by the degradation of the dollar, or of any legal-tender equivalent of the dollar. All other aggregates of wealth, the accumulations of capitalists, which can only obtain profitable use by being turned over daily in the wages of workmen and the employment of the captains of their industry, all other aggregates of wealth which remain unemployed in the payment of wages of the day, the month, the year, are not to be compared in their sum to this gigantic sum. It is this gigantic sum, the wages of labor, which is assailed by every policy that would make the dollar of the fathers worth less than its worth in gold." Every word of this is as true to-day as it was in 1885, and it applies with tenfold force to the pending proposition for the free coinage of silver.

The pointed remarks of Col. Henry L. Higginson at the anti-silver meeting in Faneuil Hall ought to arrest the attention of every business man in the country. "To-day," he said, "by reason of the action of the Senate, enterprises are stopping and trade grows dull. But you cannot get confidence by merely asking for it. It comes gradually and slowly. Rich in capital as this country is, we yet need all the possible capital of Europe to develop our great resources and industries. But the present course of legislation tends to destroy the confidence that would give us this. Let us, therefore, ask Congress to pause and consider before it commits itself to this legislation, on account of the injustice that will be done to the workingman by the passage of the Silver Bill." Every man who has financial connections abroad knows that the movement of foreign capital to this country has stopped—absolutely stopped—except in cases where engagements had been made and contracts entered into before the Silver Bill was brought forward in the Senate. Some buying and selling of our stocks on the part of foreign speculators will go on from day to day in spite of everything, but investment of a permanent kind has already ceased. This means less employment for labor and less profit for business. What Mr. Higginson says about the need of foreign capital to develop our resources is true, but it is scarcely appreciated even by men ordinarily well informed. If the movement of foreign capital to the United States should continue for the next hundred years at the same rate as during the past hundred years, it is safe to say that there would still be a demand for more at remunerative rates. Even in the narrow limits of England there is still room for more capital, as is shown by the large calls made from year to year by such old established lines of railway as the London and Northwestern, the

LICENSED TO UNZ.ORG
ELECTRONIC REPRODUCTION PROHIBITED

London and Brighton, etc., whose increasing business requires increasing facilities. The demands of this country are very far from being satisfied. The South alone needs hundreds of millions of dollars *more* than the North can spare for her rapid development and enrichment. But she will not get a dollar from abroad while this nightmare of silver hangs over her.

The *Herald* on Friday had an interview with Mr. D. O. Mills, the President of the North American Commercial Company, which holds the lease of the Pribyloff Islands for seal-catching purposes. One of the statements made by Mr. Mills is extremely suggestive. He says:

"It is, perhaps, somewhat amusing to know that not more than one-quarter of the poaching is done by British subjects. The remaining three-quarters is done almost entirely by citizens of the United States. Should any serious difficulty grow out of the present contention, the British Government will be placed in the somewhat anomalous position of defending by force of arms the depredations of American poachers."

Here is a pretty state of things indeed! We have absolute control over our own "poachers," if we choose to exercise it. Yet, according to the highest testimony within reach, we allow three of our own people to go poaching for every one that goes from British Columbia. The anomalous position that the British Government would be in, of "defending by force of arms the depredations of American poachers," would be at least matched by the anomalous position that we should be in of contending against the poaching of all nations except ourselves. The "destruction of seal life" being the evil which we wish to prevent, with what face can we proceed against one British vessel while three American ships are roaming freely in the same waters on the same errand? The truth is, that Congress has never given any countenance to the pretension that its treatment of seal-catching in open waters is "poaching." It has never claimed any right to interfere with the seal-fishery, the whale-fishery, or any other fishery, beyond the three-mile limit, whether the fishermen were Americans or foreigners.

There are other statements in Mr. Mills's interview that show him to be in possession of more information than has been vouchsafed to the public. For example, this:

"On the 4th of this month the Russian Government executed a lease for twenty years to a company to take seals on the Commander Islands, which are on the Siberian coast and about 1,000 miles west of the Pribyloff group. It is understood that Russia, in granting this franchise or lease, has promised protection to the company, and for this purpose it is said she contemplates strengthening her navy in her waters in the Bering Sea. Neither Canadians nor citizens of this country have ventured, except in a few cases, to attempt to kill seals in Russian waters of the Bering Sea. Whenever detected, Russia has dealt with them summarily. There is no disposition on the part of Canadian or American poachers to attempt to take seals within Russian waters, and there is no account of Canada or England protesting against Russia's seizing or punishing poachers in her waters."

What are "the Russian waters of the Bering Sea"? Do they extend more than three miles from the coast? If so, how many more? Mr. Blaine has said, in his latest communication to Lord Salisbury, that the United States has never set up a claim of *mare clausum* for Bering Sea, and that she expressly repudiates it. Has Russia set it up since we repudiated it? If not, then we ask again, what are the Russian waters of the Bering Sea? If they extend beyond three miles, do they extend thirty miles, or three hundred, or how many? And when did Russia "deal with them summarily"?

The cable summary of the proceedings in the British House of Commons on Monday says:

"With reference to the arrest in Mexico of the Captain of the English vessel *Seaforth*, the Under Foreign Secretary said that the British Consul had been instructed to watch the case on behalf of the captain and owners, adding that the usual legal remedies in the Mexican courts must be exhausted before the British Foreign Office could interfere."

How is it that the British men-of-war submit to this? Where were the "guns" of the cruisers to take the British captain out of the hands of his despicable captors, and make the Mexicans "stand round"? Some wretched British commander has been guilty of "timidity," of unwillingness to take "responsibility," and yet his Navy Department does not stir him up. And this is the "British Lion," forsooth! British jack-rabbit, rather, say we.

Mr. Josiah Quincy of Boston gave some figures concerning the expenses of the Massachusetts Ballot Act in the recent election, during his address before the Commonwealth Club on Monday evening, which were very striking. One of the stock arguments of the opponents of ballot reform has been that the system is enormously expensive, and to sustain this argument the expense of the first election under the system is always cited. Mr. Quincy showed that the total expense of the recent election in Massachusetts, the second under the new law, was $18,000, about half of which was for printing and distributing the ballots. Under the old system the ballots alone would have cost, he said, $40,000, to say nothing of the expense to each party of hiring its distributors. Best of all, the party distributor has been eliminated, and with him all the "watchers" and "heelers" about the polls.

The question of whether or not Gov. Hill should continue to hold the Governorship after his term as Senator begins on March 4, is exciting much attention from the press of this State. The newspapers most friendly to the Governor are divided on the subject, some saying that he cannot in decency hold both offices at the same time, and must therefore resign the Governorship; others ridiculing the idea, and declaring that the State cannot afford to spare him as Governor till he is called upon to take his seat in the Senate, which in all probability will not be till next December. There is no constitutional or other legal objection to the Governor's holding both offices at the same time, and drawing both salaries, but precedent in similar cases is all against his doing so, and any other man than David Bennett Hill would be expected to follow precedent without discussion. Why he should be averse to giving up the Governorship on March 4 is not difficult to understand. If he resigns by that date, he can exercise little or no control over the bills of the present Legislature, for few of them will be ready for his signature before that time. It is notorious that a very large part of his political power in the State is due to the absolute control which he has exercised over legislation, every member of whatever party dreading to oppose the Governor's desires, lest his local bills suffer in consequence when they come before him for approval. To demand that the Governor leave office in March is to demand that he give up a year's revenue from this important source of political strength, and thus hasten his lapse into political obscurity.

The State Board of Mediation and Arbitration has made a special report on the strike which took place on the New York Central Railroad last August. After reciting the facts, the Board renews in more definite form the recommendations made in three previous annual reports, that the relations of railway companies with their employees, considering their peculiar duties to the public, ought to be regulated in a quasi-military fashion, so that the service may not be suddenly and wantonly interrupted. These recommendations are summarized under the following heads:

(1.) The service rendered by railroad corporations created by the State is a public service.

(2.) Entrance into such service should be by enlistment for a definite period, upon satisfactory examination as to mental and physical qualifications, with oath of fidelity to the people and to the corporation.

(3.) Resignation or dismissal from such service to be permitted for cause, to be stated in writing and filed with some designated authority, and to take effect after the lapse of a reasonable and fixed period.

(4.) Wages to be established at the time of entry, and changed only by mutual agreement, or decision by arbitration of a board chosen by the company and employees, or by a State board, or through the action of both, the latter serving as an appellate body. Other differences that may arise to be settled in like manner.

(5.) Promotions to be made upon a system that may be devised and agreeable to both parties.

(6.) Any combination of two or more persons to embarrass or prevent the operation of a railroad in the service of the people, a misdemeanor; and any obstruction of or violence towards a railroad serving the people, endangering the safety of life and property, a felony with punishment of adequate severity.

(7.) Establishment of a beneficiary fund for the relief of employees disabled by sickness or accident, and for the relief of their families in case of death, as is done upon the lines of a number of railroad corporations in other States.

These recommendations may have the appearance of severity to both employer and employee, but they are essentially just, and are becoming more and more urgently necessary for the protection of public interests. We are convinced that, as time goes on, public opinion will move in the direction of a semi-military organization of the rail-

LICENSED TO UNZ.ORG
ELECTRONIC REPRODUCTION PROHIBITED

way service, in the interest of *all* the parties concerned. It need never be feared, in a democratic society like ours, that the terms of enlistment will bear hardly upon the employee.

The Scotch railroad strike is apparently over, after having inflicted enormous loss on both the men and the railroad companies. It has had the good effect, however, of causing a movement in Parliament towards legal reform in the railroad service, which will doubtless before long end in some sort of legislation on the subject in the direction suggested by our State Board of Arbitration. That is to say, it is now proposed, in order to prevent a recurrence of these sudden interruptions of the great lines of public communication—interruptions almost as serious as those caused by actual war—that the companies should *enlist*, and not simply hire, their men, under rules and regulations prescribed by the State for a fixed term, as in the army, and that strikes during this term should be punishable as mutiny. In fact, under the existing conditions of transportation in modern commercial nations, a railroad or telegraph force which can stop work at pleasure is as great an anomaly and inconvenience as an army would be which could disband at pleasure while in active service. Making the men sign individual agreements to give notice before leaving the service does no good, because the Scotch companies tried this, but found that it did not prevent the sudden desertion of their train hands and switchmen. Of course, no such service would be provided for the railroads without imposing rigid restrictions on the companies in the matter of hours and wages and conditions of dismissal, but these restrictions would give them a picked body of men, like the police and fire departments, and give the stockholders and the public peace of mind. When we made this suggestion apropos of the telegraphers' strike seven years ago, many people were shocked by it, but time has demonstrated the absolute necessity of the reorganization of the great transportation and communication service of every great nation on a semi-military basis. Our railroad strikes in this country have one aggravation unknown in Europe, in the necessity under which they nearly always place the companies of hiring an armed force to protect their property and the lives and limbs of the employees who remain faithful to them as long as the strike lasts.

The sudden dissolution of the Austrian Reichsrath, which anticipated the expiration of the six-year term of its members only by a few months, is an unmistakable admission on the part of Count Taaffe of the complete failure of the "reconciliation" between Germans and Czechs effected by him less than a year ago. Ever since the consummation of that rather ridiculous love-feast, the radical Young Czechs, under the leadership of Gregr, who had been excluded from the reconciliation conferences, have waged a bitter warfare against the Conservative Old Czechs, whose leader, Dr. Rieger, signed the agreement with the Liberal Germans conceding the equality of the German and Czech languages in the administrative matters of Bohemia. The rapid disintegration of the Old Czech party now going on, and the boundless demands of the Young Czechs, have deprived Count Taaffe of all his supporters in the Czech camp. The programme of the Young Czechs is simply complete autonomy of the lands of the Crown of St. Wenceslas, and Taaffe is hardly prepared to transform the Austro-Hungarian dualism into a federalism. Neither can he sanction the position of Herr Rieger, who, in order to save even the shadow of his former influence over his countrymen, contends that the compact entered into between him and Taaffe was merely of a private nature, and hence revocable, and who now insists, agreement or no agreement, that the Czech is the only proper Government language for Bohemia. That the Liberal Germans are not without hope of profiting by the quarrel between Old and Young Czechs and Count Taaffe's embarrassment, is evident from the altered tone of the *Neue Freie Presse*, which has of late treated the Minister with a consideration never before shown him during the ten years of his premiership. It is not impossible, unless the Government is hopelessly beaten in the impending elections, that the Liberal Germans may range themselves in the next Reichsrath on the side of the Poles, Slovens, and other Slavs, who, with the now estranged Czechs and the Feudalists and Clericals, have hitherto constituted Taaffe's working majority. The cable confusingly speaks of Taaffe's having "abandoned dependence on Bohemian and Slav members," and of an ultra-Liberal Government manifesto making a "large bid for the support of the Young Czechs"; but he would be a rash prophet who, in the present condition of Austrian affairs, should deny the possibility of Taaffe's resorting to the most contradictory measures in order to retain the reins of Government.

German Liberalism is deriving a good deal of comfort from the recent resignations of the two principal members of the Evangelical High Consistory, Herren Kögel and Hegel, who, shortly before the close of the last year, shared the fate of the notorious Stöcker. Rightly or wrongly, these dismissals are interpreted as involving a complete change in the ecclesiastical atmosphere of the Berlin Court, and as heralding the dawn of a more liberal era. The Court-Preacher Kögel was, intellectually and morally, a man of much stronger fibre than Stöcker, but he was an equally pronounced enemy of rationalism and an even more persistent and implacable antagonist of Bismarck. For sixteen years he wielded a power often superior to that of the Minister of Public Worship; but after having time and again triumphed over Herr Falk, in the face of whose opposition he became Superintendent-General and arbiter of the fate of theological candidates for public appointment, he was finally beaten in his encounter with Herr von Gossler over the Harnack affair. It will be remembered that when, about four years ago, the theological faculty of the University of Berlin extended a call to Prof. Adolph Harnack of Marburg, one of the most learned and liberal theologians of Germany, the High Consistory, through Dr. Kögel, protested against his confirmation as that of an "infidel." Minister Gossler's demand for specific charges was met by Kögel's demand for sufficient time for a thorough study of Harnack's writings, and thus the matter was delayed until the illness of the then Crown Prince Frederick William and the subsequent death of the Emperor William pushed it into the background. It was not until after the accession of the present Emperor that Herr Kögel felt emboldened to come forward with a formal protest of the Consistory against the appointment of Prof. Harnack. This step, however, irritated Herr von Gossler to such a degree that he tendered his resignation in case Herr Kögel's opinion prevailed over that of the University of Berlin, and Bismarck, then still at the height of his power, instructed the other Ministers to act in this matter as one man. This settled the dispute, and from that time Kögel's political influence was a thing of the past, although, owing to his undeniable rhetorical powers, his popularity as a preacher remained undiminished. The retirement of Herr Hegel, the President of the High Consistory, although probably the logical result of the dismissal of Stöcker and Kögel, was to be expected before long in the natural order of things, as he is in his seventy-seventh year. He is the son of the philosopher, and was all his life, politically and ecclesiastically, a reactionary of the deepest dye. He prosecuted in his ecclesiastical capacity the preachers Lisco and Sydow, who in their public utterances had been guilty of somewhat liberal sentiments, and he was generally considered to have inspired the Ultramontane measures introduced in the Prussian Diet by such members as Von Hammerstein and Kleist-Retzow.

The rejoicings of the Liberal press of Germany over the downfall of this ecclesiastical triumvirate are somewhat tempered by the reflections to which the recent retirement of three of the most prominent military writers of Germany, Gens. Verdy du Vernois and Boguslawski and Col. von Widdern, has given rise. The *Hamburger Nachrichten* deplores this stifling of the literary activity of the best military minds, and points to the beneficent results achieved nowadays in France by the opposite policy. But it may be remarked that it is not the first time in Prussian history that royal disfavor has followed the public expression of military opinion. The virtual banishment of Gen. von Goltz, who in 1883 entered the service of Turkey, and the court-martialling in 1848 of Lieutenant—subsequently Swiss Colonel—Rüstow, one of the ablest and most prolific military writers of this century, are notable instances in point.

LICENSED TO UNZ.ORG
ELECTRONIC REPRODUCTION PROHIBITED

THE REITER FOG.

A NEWSPAPER correspondent has sought to obtain from the Secretary of the Navy a statement of the rule of law, municipal or international, which he has used in disposing of Commander Reiter's case. There was nothing impertinent in the inquiry. Commander Reiter's case is not a case simply of naval administration or discipline. It is a case which evolves new instructions to American naval commanders in foreign ports, and as such is a question of law and politics of the highest public interest, inasmuch as it might at any time plunge the country in foreign complications of a very serious character. Secretary Tracy has, therefore, no right to be reticent about it. We do not demand that he shall explain his position in the newspapers: he has a right to refuse to do this. But having failed to explain in the proper place—that is, his two letters to Commander Reiter, one of which he allowed to get into the newspapers before Commander Reiter received it—he was bound to take the earliest opportunity of explaining it *somewhere* in such manner as he deemed appropriate. It will be the duty of Congress, whenever this hurly-burly is over, to extract it from him by way of legislative inquiry.

The correspondent, having failed with Secretary Tracy himself, went to an authority which for all practical purposes "is equally high in naval matters," and got his account of the Secretary's position. This gentleman put in the forefront of the charge against Commander Reiter his having gone ashore to consult the Minister, Mr. Mizner, instead of acting on his own responsibility, and makes a great deal of the point. We judge from an evidently inspired article in the *Tribune* that Reiter's "timidity" about assuming responsibility, as illustrated by his consulting the American Minister (an able lawyer, by the way, and a man of high character), is the particular cloud under which both the Navy and State Departments propose to take refuge. But nobody cares anything about Reiter's character as a man of resolution. What the public wants to know, and has a right to know, is, what was the omission in the harbor of San José on the 28th of August, of which his alleged timidity led him to be guilty, and for which he has now been so severely punished? Even Secretary Tracy, in his angriest mood as "ruler of the Queen's Navee," would not dismiss an officer from his ship, with a severe reprimand, for simply going ashore, when in a puzzling situation, to see what the American Minister thought about it. Commander Reiter has been punished for having, after taking the Minister's advice, allowed the Guatemalan authorities to do something in their own harbor which he ought to have resisted by force. What was that thing? Whatever it was, would it have been lawful for him to resist it? These are the questions which the Secretary of the Navy is bound to answer somewhere somehow.

The correspondent pressed the equivalent authority on this point as follows:

"But had not the local powers a right to treat a merchant vessel entering their waters voluntarily, as the *Acapulco* did, as within the jurisdiction of their laws?"

This goes to the heart of the matter, as we shall presently show. Here is the answer he got:

"Not to the extent of taking forcible possession of the body of a passenger. Whatever they may have claimed as their right, it was no part of our business to recognize it. As long as Gen. Barrundia was a passenger on an American ship, it was our duty to see that he should be free to go and come as he chose."

That this is an extraordinary answer to come from the Navy Department of a great Power, any intelligent reader may see at a glance. It disposes of the question of law very much as Paddy Divver might dispose of it. "Whatever they may have claimed as their right, it was no part of our business to recognize it." That is, an American naval officer was not, in a foreign port, to consult his authorities to find out what his attitude towards the local authorities ought to be as decided by civilized usage, but "to use his guns without appeal." Now, let us see what these authorities are. Mr. Alexander Porter Morse has collected some of them in an article published in the *Albany Law Journal* apropos of this very Barrundia affair. Said Secretary Everett, February 17, 1853, "Merchant vessels in port are subject to the police law of the port." Said Secretary Marcy, August 31, 1855:

"If the United States claim jurisdiction over all offences committed on board of foreign private vessels in their harbors or waters, they cannot with consistency assert the right to have their citizens exempt from the jurisdiction of the local authorities when they commit similar offences in foreign ports."

Said Secretary Marcy again, April 19, 1856:

"This Government does not apply the doctrine of extra-territoriality to its private or merchant ships in foreign ports, except in cases where it has been conceded by treaty or established usage, and it does not pretend that it has been so conceded in criminal cases to American merchant vessels in British ports."

Said Secretary Frelinghuysen, November 13, 1883:

"I find no difficulty in agreeing with your statement that, by the general principles of international law, private or merchant vessels entering the ports of another nation than their own are subject to local jurisdiction; and I also recognize at once the convenience and desirability of the rule you suggest as that adopted by France, and followed by some other nations, that local courts should decline to take jurisdiction of cases involving acts of mere interior discipline of the vessel."

Said Secretary Bayard, apropos of the Gomez case—one exactly like Barrundia's—March 12, 1885:

"It may be safely affirmed that when a merchant vessel of one country visits the ports of another for the purposes of trade, it owes temporary allegiance and is amenable to the jurisdiction of that country, and is subject to the laws which govern the ports it visits so long as it remains, unless it is otherwise provided by treaty. Any exemption or immunity from local jurisdiction must be derived from the consent of that country. No such exemption is made in the treaty of commerce and navigation concluded between this country and Nicaragua on the 21st day of June, 1867."

Finally, what was Commander Reiter taught by the 'Naval Encyclopædia,' a textbook in which the article on International Law was written by Mr. Soley, the present Assistant Secretary of the Navy—a very competent person—in the following passage? The writer, after discussing the immunity of public ships from such jurisdiction, proceeds:

"To private or merchant vessels no such immunity is granted. They have no exemption from the jurisdiction of the State in which they are, except by express convention. Police officers may go on board such vessels, their officers or seamen may be arrested on board, writs may be served, and crimes occurring on board by whomsoever committed are triable in the local courts."

There is a swarm of judicial opinions and opinions of book-writers of like tenor and effect. We shall not claim here that they absolutely settle the Barrundia case, but we do say that it is a monstrous and unprecedented thing that the head of the navy of a great maritime Power should give the commander of a public ship to understand that he may ignore them, and that it is "no part of his business" to regard the rights of the local authorities in foreign countries, and should punish and denounce an officer for even hesitating to use force in resisting a local warrant.

THE POPULATION OF NEW HAMPSHIRE.

CENSUS BULLETIN No. 21 gives the population of New Hampshire by counties and minor civil divisions. An analysis of the figures proves that while the population of the State as a whole has, during the last decade, increased from 346,991 to 376,530, or at the rate of 8.51 per cent., three-fifths of all the towns in the State have now less population than they had ten years ago. The following table shows, moreover, that the majority of the towns in each of eleven out of the twelve counties in the State have fewer inhabitants than they had in 1880. The exception is the County of Coos, which includes the thinly settled northern extremity of the State.

The table is as follows:

Counties.	Total number of towns, etc.	Number of towns, etc., showing increase of population.	Number of towns, etc., showing decrease of population.	Number of towns, etc., no change in population.	Number of towns, etc., for which no comparison can be made.
Belknap.....	11	3	8		
Carroll.....	18	7	11		
Cheshire.....	23	10	13		
Coos.....	35	17	8	2	8
Grafton.....	39	11	28		
Hillsborough..	31	11	20		
Merrimack....	27	8	19		
Rockingham..	37	15	22		
Strafford.....	13	6	7		
Sullivan.....	15	3	12		
Total	249	91	148	2	8

A still further analysis of the census returns demonstrates that the decrease has been almost wholly in the smaller and agricultural towns. In 1880 there were twenty-eight cities and towns each of which contained more than 2,000 inhabitants. Of these, twenty-seven show an increase, and only one (the town of Hanover, in Grafton County, which in 1880 had a population of 2,147), a decrease. Of the towns with a population

LICENSED TO UNZ.ORG
ELECTRONIC REPRODUCTION PROHIBITED

of from 1,500 to 2,000, nearly as many show a decrease as an increase, and the increase of these towns in the aggregate is but 4 per cent. The majority of the towns with a population of between 1,000 and 1,500 have lost population, and the decrease in the aggregate population of these towns in the decade has been over 4 per cent. The decrease has been the greatest in the towns with the smallest population, the towns with less than 1,000 inhabitants each having suffered a loss of 10 per cent. since 1880.

The following table illustrates very clearly how the larger places are growing and the smaller ones losing population:

Towns & cities classified according to population in 1890. Population	No. of such towns.	Population. 1890.	Population. 1880.	Gain or loss.	Percentage.
Over 20,000.....	1	44,126	32,630	+11,496	+35.23
10,000 to 20,000	3	49,105	38,927	+10,178	+26.15
4,000 to 10,000	8	50,953	43,172	+7,781	+18.02
2,000 to 4,000	23	63,271	52,609	+10,662	+20.26
1,500 to 2,000	20	34,184	32,867	+1,317	+4.01
1,000 to 1,500	49	59,168	61,734	—2,566	—4.16
Under 1,000....	145	75,723	85,052	—9,329	—10.97
Total.....	249	376,530	346,991	+29,539	+8.51

+ Increase. —Decrease.

The cities having over 10,000 inhabitants each in 1890 have increased almost a third during the decade, and those between 2,000 and 1,000 nearly a fifth, while the towns with a population in 1890 of between 1,000 and 2,000 have suffered a slight decrease, and those with less than 1,000 inhabitants each have lost nearly one-ninth of their population. This increase in the larger and decrease in the smaller places has been going on for the last forty years, as the following table will show:

Date of census.	Population. Of 35 towns having upwards of 2,000 inhabitants each in 1890.	Of 69 towns having between 1,000 to 2,000 inhabitants each in 1890.	Of 145 towns having less than 1,000 inhabitants each in 1890.	Percentage of total population. In towns over 2,000.	In towns between 1,000 and 2,000.	In towns under 1,000.
1890..	207,455	93,352	75,723	55.10	24.79	20.11
1880..	167,338	94,601	85,052	48.23	27.26	24.51
1870..	137,440	92,314	88,555	43.18	29.00	27.82
1860..	126,235	97,815	102,020	38.71	30.00	31.29
1850..	113,506	97,628	106,842	35.69	30.71	33.60

Since 1850 the population of the larger places has nearly doubled. That of the towns with from 1,000 to 2,000 inhabitants in 1890 has slightly fallen off, while that of the smaller towns has decreased almost one-third in the aggregate. The falling off in particular towns has, of course, oftentimes been much greater. In 1850 the thirty-five larger towns contained but a trifle more than a third of the entire population of the State; they now have considerably more than one-half. Forty years ago the smaller towns had a third of the population, and now but a fifth.

THE HARTLEPOOL ELECTION.

English politics has, during the past seven years, produced a great many surprises, and the result of the Hartlepool election is probably one of the greatest. The borough is an important one, and was long held by the Liberals. It was won by them at the general election in 1885, by 3,669 to 2,629. It was, however, lost by the Gladstonians at the general election in the following year, the Liberal Unionists carrying it by 3,381 to 2,469 over the Home-Rulers. This year, although the Liberal Unionists' candidate, Mr. Gray, was considered exceptionally formidable, being exceedingly popular and the largest employer of labor in the borough, the Home-Ruler has carried it by 4 603 against 4,305, the vote being the fullest on record. The Gladstonians have been looking forward to this election, the first since the Parnellite catastrophe, with the deepest apprehension. It was to be the first indication of the effect produced on the English voters by the Irish divisions and the revelation of Parnell's turpitude, and the result was expected by the Unionist press with unconcealed glee. They had no more doubt about it than they had about the Kilkenny election, when Lord Salisbury advised "them to put their money on Parnell." The Home-Rulers were to be routed once more. Gladstone was to be repudiated, fall sick, and then, after a short period of decay, to die, and the reunited Liberal party was to lay the Irish question aside, hand the Irish over to Mr. Balfour, and occupy itself exclusively with English reforms. The Unionist depression is now doubtless correspondingly great. The two leading organs, the *Times* and the *Standard*, acknowledge that the situation is serious.

The Gladstonian victory is probably due to two causes. One is the personal popularity of Gladstone, which has, according to the best accounts, been increased by the Parnellite trouble. Popular sympathy for the "Grand Old Man" has been intensified by Parnell's brutal insults, and by the mortification and disappointment which the revelation of Parnell's baseness has caused him, and by the dignity with which he has borne all. Moreover, the mass of the English voters are not blinded, as the upper classes are, by personal hatred of Gladstone. There has been nothing more discreditable in English history to the mind and manners of the English gentry than the silly stories which they circulate about Gladstone's personal character, and which a considerable number of them, doubtless, believe. They, in truth, make out Gladstone to be a far worse man in all respects than Parnell, forgetting the awful disgrace which this, if true, would reflect on English morals, and forgetting, too, how far below the Irish Parnellites this would place one-half of the British people. The middle and laboring classes are not the victims of this amazing fatuity. They have too much "horse sense" to suppose that a man could reach Gladstone's age in a blaze of publicity such as has probably never surrounded any Englishman, without ever having had any more serious charge made against him than that of having changed his mind suddenly, or contradicted himself on public matters, at various intervals in the course of fifty years of public life. They note, too, that the loudest of his accusers on these points have been the most notorious political weathercocks and turncoats in England.

The second reason is probably still more powerful, namely, the popular perception that though Parliament might lay aside Home Rule, it could not lay aside the Irish question. Home Rule is simply one proposed mode of solving the Irish difficulty. It may be a bad mode, but resolving not to try it would not dispose of the Irish trouble any more than dismissing a particular doctor would cure a man of a chronic disease. No party can come into power in England without having to make the state of Ireland its first concern. The Irish have, and are likely to have, eighty-six votes in the House of Commons. These votes cannot be treated as a "neglectable quantity." British business cannot be transacted in Parliament without either getting rid of them by the disfranchisement of the Irish voters, and the government of Ireland as a Crown colony, or by the adoption of rules of procedure which would seriously impede legislation and humiliate the House of Commons in the eyes of the country. The notion that either of these expedients could be adopted in the present temper of the English people, without just as much turmoil and as much preoccupation of the popular mind as the Home-Rule expedient causes, seems almost childish. The Irish question would still remain, and would have to be fought over until it was settled, if Gladstone were to die to-morrow. It is only in part an economical question; it is in the main, like similar questions everywhere, a sentimental question. No people on whom the feeling of nationality and the desire for self-government have once taken hold, has ever been bought off by the offer of material comfort. Scores of conquerors have tried it in vain in times when it was easy to get rid of malcontents by killing them. It has less chance of success now than ever, and the offer of it, as now made to the Irish by Lord Salisbury, Balfour, and Mr. Chamberlain, accompanied with jeers and insults, is probably the most unpalatable and futile form it has ever taken.

The result of the election in Hartlepool seems to be put in some danger by the allegation that Furness, the successful candidate, who is, like his opponent, a large employer of labor, promised to employ none but members of the trades-unions, which the Conservative lawyers are disposed to consider a violation of the Corrupt Practices Act—that is, as something in the nature of a bribe. The defeat has been so mortifying and unexpected to the Tories that they will doubtless petition against Furness's return if they have a leg to stand on. But, luckily, election petitions

LICENSED TO UNZ.ORG
ELECTRONIC REPRODUCTION PROHIBITED

are tried in England by the courts of law, just like the title to property or to any other office; so that there is no danger of foul play. If Furness be unseated on this ground, it will, however, hardly help the Conservatives much in Hartlepool. The general election cannot be far off, and, when it comes, Furness will not need to make any express promise to get the support of the workingmen, who will probably consider him a martyr. One of the curious features in the working of the Conservative mind at present is that they feel consoled if they can show that a Home-Ruler owed his election, not to Home Rule, but to something else, as if it was of any practical importance how a Home-Ruler gets into the House of Commons, as long as he gets there and supports Home Rule.

THE RESPONSIBILITY OF HYPNOTIC SUBJECTS.

THE Gouffé murder trial, which has just taken place at Paris, is an event of more than passing importance, as being probably the first case in which hypnotic suggestion has been set up as a defence by a person charged with crime. The practice in French courts is so different from our own, and the reports of newspaper correspondents are so exclusively confined to irrelevant matters, that it is by no means easy to ascertain precisely what questions were determined; but, so far as we can judge, they appear to have been the following: The first was a particular proposition: Did the woman Bompard commit the act with which she was charged while under the influence of hypnotic suggestion? The second question was general: If the commission of a crime is suggested to a person in the hypnotic state, may the will be so affected as to make the person committing the crime, after such suggestion, irresponsible? Although the negative answer, which seems to have been found by the jury to the first question, made the second inquiry unnecessary, the decision, as we understand it, involved the negation of both propositions.

While such a conclusion, if satisfactorily reached, would be highly reassuring, we are unable to attach much weight to the decision in this case. The evidence may have been sufficient to justify a finding that the woman Bompard did not commit the crime after hypnotic suggestion, although it does not seem that that issue was properly presented. It appeared that when a girl she had been seduced by a man who had hypnotized her, that she had been repeatedly hypnotized, and that she could be easily thrown into the somnambulistic trance. But, as the trial was conducted, this evidence could hardly have been considered by the jury. The Government refused to allow M. Liégeois of Nancy, one of the greatest authorities on hypnotism, to see the prisoner, for the reason that the Procureur-Général declined to admit that the opinion of three physicians should be "controlled" by a professor of law. The prison-physician who had attended the woman for eleven months, and had made use of his position to hypnotize her repeatedly, when called for the defence refused to testify, pleading, after having been released by the prisoner, his professional privilege. He declared that he considered that his patient had no right to relieve him of his obligation to secrecy—a proposition which seems to have been accepted as law by the court.

This contribution to jurisprudence was added to by the Procureur-Général, who laid it down that the prison-doctor could not testify, because he had made his experiments in his private capacity, which he had no business to do, and for the further reason that he had probably been imposed upon by his patient. The prisoner's counsel attempted to reply to this, but was suppressed by the court. Some of the audience murmured and were expelled. And so the trial proceeded in the melodramatic manner thought by the French to be favorable to the promotion of justice, but which seems, judging from these incidents, to be about as well calculated for the scientific ascertainment of truth as that followed in Wonderland in the celebrated case of the Knave of Hearts.

It was asserted by M. Liégeois that if the woman were hypnotized and asked about the crime, she would give an accurate account of the manner in which it was perpetrated. This experiment was proposed by the defence, but rejected by the Government upon the ground that the prisoner was a liar and had a turn for acting. It seems to have been thought that her mendacity would prevail even in the hypnotic state, and that shamming could not be detected. Certainly it is much to be regretted that the experiment was not tried, as its importance for both scientific and legal purposes is obvious. It suggests new possibilities in the way of detection of crime, which might go far to neutralize the temptation of the facilities supposed to be afforded by hypnotism for its commission.

As to the question of the responsibility of hypnotics, the conclusions reached by a jury under such conditions as we have described seem to us to have no value. The *Spectator*, it is true, claims to have followed all the experiments, and considers that the Procureur-Général, M. Quesnay de Beaurepaire, has rendered it clear that in the artificial sleep "the will was always sufficiently strong to frustrate malevolent counsels." In support of this proposition he alleged the authority of Dr. Charcot of the Salpêtrière. But we fail to be impressed with the reasoning by which the Procureur disposed of the testimony of Dr. Liégeois, reasoning which the *Spectator* finds so conclusive. "The Nancy School," said this functionary, "declared that to hypnotize a person, neither sleep nor the imposition of hands was necessary; a mere glance thrown from one end of a railway carriage to another was quite sufficient. . . . The consequences of that doctrine would be that there would no longer be any morality or any conscience. Man would not be distinguishable from the brute creation; he would disappear in the anarchy of unpunished crimes. That was why it was impossible to mention the Nancy School without a smile, and that smile was the most eloquent of answers." It is scarcely necessary to say that a question of fact is not to be disposed of by observations upon the alarming consequences that may be expected from its establishment, or by the most eloquent of smiles.

As opposed to this conclusion, we may cite several eminent authorities. Prof. James, in his recent work on psychology, states that subjects in the hypnotic condition "will receive and execute suggestions of crime, and act out a theft, forgery, arson, or murder." It is true that this is not always the case, but it is the case in the deeper conditions. "The background thoughts still exist, and have the power of *comment* on the suggestions, but no power to inhibit their motor and associative effects." Post-hypnotic or deferred suggestions "succeed with a certain number of patients, even when the execution is named for a remote period." During the interval preceding their execution the patient may be absolutely ignorant that they have been deposited in his mind. The moment the suggested performance is over, the patient may forget it and deny all knowledge of it.

Still more to the point are the statements of MM. Binet and Féré. If arms are given to the subject,

"he may be induced to commit any crime which is prompted by the experimenter. We could cite several acts, to say the least unseemly, committed by hysterical patients, which were crimes in miniature, and instigated by one who was really guilty, and who remained unknown. At the Salpêtrière a paper-knife has often been placed in the hands of an hypnotic subject, who is told that it is a dagger, with which she is ordered to murder one of the persons present. On awaking, the patient hovers round her victim and suddenly strikes him with such violence that I think it well to refrain from such experiments. . . . It was suggested to a subject that she should poison X—— with a glass of pure water which was said to contain poison. The suggestion did not indicate in what way the crime was to be committed. The subject offered the glass to X——, and invited him to drink by saying, 'Is it not a hot day?' (It was in summer). . . .

"These facts show that the hypnotic subject may become the instrument of a terrible crime, the more terrible since, immediately after the act is accomplished, all may be forgotten—the crime, the impulse, and its instigator. Some of the more dangerous characteristics of these suggested acts should be noted. These impulses may give rise to crimes or offences of which the nature is infinitely varied, but which retain the almost constant character of a conscious, irresistible impulse; that is, although the subject is quite himself, and conscious of his identity, he cannot resist the force which impels him to perform an act which he would, under other circumstances, condemn. Hurried on by this irresistible force, the subject feels none of the doubts and hesitations of a criminal who acts spontaneously: he behaves with a tranquillity and security which would in such a case insure the success of his crime. Some of our subjects are aware of the power of suggestion, and, when absolutely resolved to commit an act for which they fear that their courage or audacity may fail when the moment arrives, they take the precaution of receiving the suggestion from their companions.

"The danger of these criminal suggestions is increased by the fact that, at the will of the experimenter, the act may be accomplished several hours, and even several days, after the date of suggestion. Facts of this kind, which were first reported by Richet, are not exceptional, and have been repeatedly observed by us."

It is obvious that the principles involved in this case deserve careful study, and we trust that students both of psychology and of jurisprudence will procure the fullest

LICENSED TO UNZ.ORG
ELECTRONIC REPRODUCTION PROHIBITED

possible reports and subject them to the severest scrutiny. It seems quite probable that legislation may become necessary to regulate the exercise of a power which may be seriously abused by unscrupulous persons, and we are perhaps already in position to lay down the lines which such legislation should follow. The exercise of the power should certainly be forbidden to all except properly qualified and duly licensed persons, and even then it may probably be wise to restrict its use to cases where benefit may reasonably be expected to follow to the individual patient. The devotee of science is under too great temptation to make use of a peculiarly helpless class of human beings as the subject of experiment, to be allowed absolute license. The inmates of hospitals are human beings, and are entitled to protection against practices which, however ultimately beneficial to mankind, are sometimes immediately degrading and prejudicial to themselves. The consent of the patients is obviously, under the circumstances in which they are placed, immaterial. It admits of no doubt to one who reads the reports of the experiments made in foreign hospitals, that the treatment to which patients are frequently subjected would, if known, excite the indignant protests of their relatives and friends.

ENGLISH VIEWS OF THE COPYRIGHT ACT.

LONDON, January 5, 1891.

I HAVE taken pains to ascertain the feelings of authors and book-manufacturers as to the proposed American Copyright Act, and have read the numerous daily and weekly comments in the public prints. At this distance it looks very much as if the House of Representatives, chagrined at the censure which the recent elections have put upon it, had turned about since last winter, when it rejected the act, and, because of its element of protection, had committed itself to the measure out of spite, and to show that the McKinley spirit is not yet dead. A nearer acquaintance with the political complexion of the favorers of the act might disprove this remote commentary. English authors seem not to be discontented, and, except so far as their interests are linked with those of the publishers, have no particular occasion to be; and it seems to be the general opinion that a few, William Black, for instance, among them, will profit largely. Some put his prospective profits at five thousand dollars a year, though others think such a sum a great exaggeration. Some authors, like Herbert Spencer, who have been in the habit of sending over on their own account duplicate plates of their books, see little to be gained by themselves, and are content with securing the start in publication; and indeed that advantage is sufficient for books not profitable to reprint against such odds.

There is, however, no such degree of contentment among the manufacturers of books, and some of the leading houses share a feeling of resentment mixed with sentiments of self-interest. In small conferences and larger councils, there seems to be a determination to seek a remedy in Parliament, and I should judge it certain that the next session would see a bill introduced retaliatory in spirit if not in form. This last condition will be in some sense avoided by making adhesion to the Convention of Berne necessary to the securing of copyright in any country. A muttering that showed the nature of the opposition has deterred them from attempting a directly retaliatory bill, as was first talked of, and it is to be disguised in this form, while still in effect of a retaliatory nature. It is apparently hoped that this semi-concealment is to satisfy enough of the uncompromising free-traders to make them aid in carrying the measure. There are among its aggrieved promoters varying degrees of confidence in success, but all recognize the fact that, disguise the measure as you will, its aim is unmistakably a protection for those who subsist on the manufacture of books.

Taking people not having a personal interest in the matter, as I hear the talk at the clubs, and as I draw out views from such members of Parliament as I have met, the opinion is all but universal that the measure will not succeed. The argument among such indifferent persons is that, call it what you will, it is a protective measure, and England is too far committed to free trade ever to break its record for a single interest, which is sure to be followed by the claims of innumerable other interests if a beginning is made. To this plea an answer is given that literary property is on a different footing from other property, and it can be hedged about consistently with barriers unsuited to other property. It remains to be seen if this argument will be of any avail. I suspect that it will not.

Most unbiassed people think that the loss to British printers under the operation of such an act as is proposed in America, is nothing like so great as those now in a disturbed condition of mind represent that it will be, and that the number of British authors to be tempted to print their books in America is not great, and hardly sufficient to disturb seriously the conditions of the publishing business. There can be little doubt that the disturbance in this direction will not much affect well-established houses.

People here, in talking of this matter, sooner or later say that any copyright reciprocity, pure and simple, must in any case help the American more than the British author, because of the number of British books to be copyrighted in America being greater than those of American books to derive advantages from a British copyright. We can only meet this assertion by saying that our fecundity is on the increase, and there may yet be, before very long, an absolute equality in such reciprocity. This is very readily conceded.

The scholarship of America is by no means so dependent on British books as this statement implies. It means rather that the great mass of general readers and ordinary book-buyers are served by the British author; and publishers and dealers here recognize the fact that America is a larger market for books than England, but they are not quite so ready to acknowledge that there is more reading in America than in England, proportionately at least. They point to such establishments as Mudie's, to the clubs which are everywhere, and to the rapid increase of public libraries, and the joining of reading facilities to the innumerable charitable and other organizations, which are at every turn.

There is little doubt that the scholars of America look rather to Germany than to England for their sustenance. The experience of our largest university library is the best test on this question. I write of Harvard as best known to me. There are in Cambridge, Mass., not far from two hundred and fifty special scholars, engaged in instruction and in the pay of the University. There must be at least as many more students, more or less connected with the University, who are equally specialized in their scholastic aims. These are the men who prompt the purchases of that library, and, to answer their wants, more books have been bought for several years past in German than in English or French. For the second place, it is sometimes English and sometimes French. It is not difficult to discover the cause of this. The Germans are the greatest monographists now writing, and the greatest need to specialized scholarship is the monograph. The difference in the helps to literary and scientific attainments between the English and German productions is considerably greater than the mere excess of German books bought by the leading university library over the English, inasmuch as the proportion of monographs in the German accessions is much larger than in the English. The same reasons hold good when we seek to find why it is that large numbers of Americans seek the German universities, and why so few go to Oxford and Cambridge. There is a far greater variety, as well as a greater minuteness of research, in the methods of Berlin and Leipzig than in the English universities. This is recognized here, and people understand the preferences which the Americans have for the Continental schools, the advantages of which are, further, much more easily availed of by a specializing foreigner than the instruction is in England.

The British educational inquirer is some what inclined to flout at German erudition as unproductive of a high state of literature, and there is truth in it, and one does not look in America on classical education running into philology to the neglect of the literary side without some misgiving, as to the over-close dependence which we have on German methods. That a reaction will in time follow I have no doubt, and we shall return to the classics as to books to be read, rather than as fields of philological problems to be discussed, and we shall so return all the better prepared for their enjoyment by reason of the phase of German study which now so much dominates in the classical curriculum of our colleges. We must not forget that it is only within a comparatively few years that American scholarship in the classics could compete with European. As long as study must be had of manuscripts, America had no chance; but now that nearly every manuscript of importance has been edited, or at least its readings collated, and the results printed, the American scholar has as good an apparatus as the European. There is nothing, I find, that has made English classical scholars so sensible of this as the works of Prof. Goodwin, solved with such facilities as time has given to us, for he is acknowledged on all hands here in England as second to no one in his department.

I have referred to the increase of public libraries in England. Nothing is more noticeable in the drift of opinion regarding such institutions than that London, in its immensity, has been the last to feel the general impulse; and in no part of the island is the spirit which prompts and supports municipal free libraries more active at the present time than here. Not long since, Sir John Lubbock—and no more active-minded and laborious Englishman exists—set forth in an address at the opening of one of these libraries the extent of the cost of maintaining such institutions, as compared with the cost of suppressing the crime from which, he contends, the libraries divert the lower classes; and there seems little disposition to question his arguments. With all this, one looks on with amazement at the stubborn, old-fashioned ways in which these libraries spring

LICENSED TO UNZ.ORG
ELECTRONIC REPRODUCTION PROHIBITED

into existence, each parish working out its problem in its own manner, regardless of experience to be afforded by others, and mulishly valuing what they deem to be their own right to do everything just as they please higher than any wisdom which can be acquired as a gift. I had supposed, with our New England habits of local independence inherited from a struggle which separated us from England, that the method of a more rational and thrifty way of maintaining such libraries encountered more opposition with us than in the older countries from which we sprang; but it seems to be the opinion of experts in library matters here, that nothing can surpass the crass obstinacy of parish committees to have their own way at any cost of money and of failure. Except for the proverbial slowness in reform in England, one would say that the example across the Channel, in the opportune and beneficent workings of that large circle of provincial libraries regulated by the Société Franklin in Paris, would have some effect in England; but I cannot find that even the best informed supporters of the English library system have ever made a study of the organization in France. In this method, as in living and in much else, the French have taken the lead in showing us how a given sum of money can be made to go furthest.

Last winter I tried to impress upon a committee of the Massachusetts Legislature, who called me before it, the value of this French system, and that the project then before them of beginning a system of State aid to small local libraries could with great advantage be accompanied by measures looking to bring all libraries of their creation into a circle of dependent libraries, alike in the main features to the several hundred now regulated by this Paris society. The plan involved a central bureau in Boston, in whose constitution there must be confidence, which should select and furnish all books, furniture, printing, and supplies, using what money the local libraries could raise, and supplementing it by such other funds as the State or subscriptions might afford. The advantages would be more discrimination arising from larger experience, greater discounts from more extensive operations; and often a single outlay would be made to suffice for many libraries, as for instance in a combined catalogue, which could be made to answer for all the libraries.

There is no greater apparent waste of money in libraries than that spent both on cataloguing and on the printing of catalogues, and yet no library can fulfil its proper functions without a catalogue, and many libraries must have a printed one. It is often urged that there should be a community of endeavor in this respect among libraries. Among large libraries this is impossible, inasmuch as so small a portion of their accessions are in common. If one doubts this, look at the printed lists of their yearly accessions published by such contiguous libraries as the Boston Public Library, the Boston Athenæum, and the library of Harvard University. One will be surprised at the comparatively few titles common to the three lists. But as respects the ordinary free town library no such difficulty exists. A library of 5,000 to 10,000 volumes is in no wise hurt if it is made the duplicate of a hundred others. There will be the same standard English books and the same selection of current publications. To serve a circle of such libraries with the same cataloguing, printing, and supplies of all sorts, with the advantage of a single supervising mind, means a diminution of expense for each library of at least one-half, or, in other words, a doubling of facilities for the same money.

Unfortunately it involves a sacrifice of local independence, which communities at present do not think preserved at too great cost when the expense is doubled. To make the needed economic changes, the village lawyer, doctor, and minister who make the committee to select books, must give up their function, the schoolmaster must forego a pittance of addition to his income for the cataloguing of the books, the carpenter must consent that a distant mechanic shall make the cases, and the country printer must find other profit than in printing its blanks and catalogues. The interests of these people, added to the general belief in what is called local independence, have thus far, in America as in England, militated against the first principles of thrifty management for such libraries. The coöperation which has come about in trade and in such institutions as the Army and Navy stores of London, shows what the future will develop in this other field; and when we in America find our population sufficiently congested, and the getting the utmost out of money a necessity, we shall then wonder why France has so long seen and acted upon what we have so long stubbornly refused to recognize. JUSTIN WINSOR.

THE OUTLOOK IN IRELAND.

LONDON, January 17, 1891.

THE comments of the *Nation* upon the Kilkenny election were singularly perspicacious, recognizing it as the first Irish election whose result would seriously influence the fortunes of the country. Indeed, we may say that now, for the first time in Irish history, the Irish people have their fate practically in their own hands. If they pronounce unequivocally against Mr. Parnell, the self-government of Ireland cannot be much longer delayed. If their decision be doubtful or largely in his favor, a dreary time of hope deferred opens out before us.

At the present writing, affairs do not look particularly encouraging. I lately spent a month in Dublin, where feeling is strong in favor of Mr. Parnell. I was assured by a lady who had seen some of the chief Dublin gatherings of recent years, that the Rotunda welcome meeting surpassed all others in sustained enthusiasm. Literally for twelve minutes Mr. Parnell was kept bowing on the platform before being permitted to speak. That he should be so regarded by the masses is not very wonderful, but what is truly so is the firm hold he retains on the hearts and minds of the refined and educated. The Protestant Home-Rule Association, constituted essentially of educated and thoughtful men, after a fortnight for reflection, and after a fair and well-sustained debate, pronounced in the proportion of nine to five in his favor. So with most of my Nationalist relatives and friends, male and female. They say: "We have no right to be too hard on Mr. Parnell." "We have not yet heard his side of the story." "He is the only man qualified to lead us." "Mr. Gladstone is not to be trusted, nor is the English Liberal party." Among less intelligent, but excellent people, one hears: "It is most likely he is not guilty at all; it may be a conspiracy of the Government." The extent to which refined and cultivated women, both in Ireland and here, have espoused his cause, is a problem. He has been welcomed in respectable Dublin and Cork homes as he was never before welcomed. "Oh, I am with you, but my wife here is for Parnell," said a Catholic friend whom I met out walking with his wife. Some quite historic names among London women are on his side. Also he has the adherence, more or less, of a large class of well-known men, such as O'Neill Daunt, John O'Leary, Barry O'Brien, and others, who had hitherto held back from too much identifying themselves with the Parnell movement. That they should now clasp hands with the "Hillside men" is remarkable. It may be partly explained by their never having been really converted to the British alliance. These men, as well as the women referred to, can perhaps take a more personal and unpractical view of the situation than those burdened by the responsibility of public matters.

I had occasion to visit in the country an old friend, who had for nearly twenty-nine years formed a part of my own household. Her family, occupying a mud-built cabin in the County Kildare, are respectable tenants, sustaining themselves honestly by hard labor, assisted by her savings. They expressed themselves almost fiercely, as far as courtesy to me permitted, in favor of Parnell, dwelling especially on our "ingratitude" to him. I could see that my defection was a grief to them. The gentleman farmer, the landlord under whom they lived, shared their views. Sitting in his comfortable dining-room, he exclaimed: "The big landlords would have sold the eyes out of our heads, and this man saved us, and now you turn against him." His wife expressed herself even more strongly. The openness with which all these people, Catholics, reprobated the action of their priests, was very striking, and shows how the Irish people, except in ecclesiastical matters, have emancipated themselves from clerical control. On the other hand, a young curate, with whom I conversed on the subject out of doors, spoke under his breath so as not to be overheard in adjacent cabins. I was disappointed that some tenant farmers, asked to meet me at the house of the parish priest, were disinclined to express their real sentiments in his presence. The talk was sustained almost entirely by him, the landlord aforesaid, and myself. The inevitably demoralizing effect on the community of a condonation of Mr. Parnell's doings was emphasized to me the other day by hearing the comment of a Catholic servant girl thereupon: "After all, he is only in the fashion; sure, it's what the aristocracy do."

Against these my experiences in Dublin and the near country may be set the highly satisfactory result of the Kilkenny election. There is hope that while the towns and the portions of the country (such as Kildare) in sympathy with the towns may side with Parnell, the country districts generally are sound. Cork city, and certainly its Nationalist daily papers, are decidedly with us. The Wexford *People*, one of the most influential papers in the southeast of Ireland, also stands firm. The principal Waterford newspaper supports Parnell. The vehement and constant advocacy of the *Freeman's Journal* is one of the strongest factors on his side. To be without a central leading organ to express their views is a difficult and humiliating position for the majority of the Irish Parliamentary party, who believe they represent an overwhelming preponderance of the public opinion of the country. The *Insuppressible*, a cleavage in our interest of *United Ireland* seized by Parnell, is a poor stopgap. Funds are being raised for the establishment of a first-class Dublin daily organ; but every one knowing what that involves will understand that it could not be started at once.

Looking at affairs altogether, and even considering the Kilkenny election (an election conducted on the whole in a manner so creditable to our people, and which did not prevent the Judge of Assize there being since

LICENSED TO UNZ.ORG
ELECTRONIC REPRODUCTION PROHIBITED

presented with a pair of white gloves), we fear the situation has not improved within the past month. Mr. Parnell has shown steady and persistent energy and determination, combined with the skill of a Mephistopheles, in confusing the issue and beguiling even the best. No such energy has been manifested by his opponents. Relying on their majority in committee-room No. 15, they can display no such front as his. The strong personality of Parnell is much in his favor. Even the English Liberal papers notice his speeches more than those of the anti-Parnellite members. Mr. Healy is the life and soul of the opposition; but his effectiveness has been sadly marred by ill-considered abuse of those from whom he differs, and public statements which cannot always be substantiated. The personal accusations on both sides have been shocking, calling in question chiefly motives as against the Opposition, and character as against the Parnellites. I had an opportunity of investigating some of these latter accusations, and found them as baseless as are the aspersions cast on the motives of Mr. McCarthy and his friends. The very designation Parnellite has in itself a prestige not associated with that of McCarthyite. The *Pall Mall* term "Patriots" assumes too much, and does not find general acceptance. The wild utterances indulged in by Mr. Parnell before and during the Kilkenny election were entirely unlike his old self. This was especially impressed on me lately in looking over a scarce book prepared for the Commission—Mr. Parnell's 'Speeches, Letters, and Public Utterances out of Parliament from 1879 to 1888.' He has now reverted to his former and more really telling style.

The return of Mr. Harrington, his vigorous resumption of the management of the National League in his leader's interest, and personal advocacy of his cause over Ireland, immensely increase Mr. Parnell's chances of success. Worse than all are the return of Mr. O'Brien, the Boulogne conferences, the opening he has left for the supposition that he has been captured by Mr. Parnell, and the consequent numbness among the Opposition over the cause of Ireland, while Mr. Parnell has felt encouraged to pursue his course with unabated energy. And now it is supposed we are to await John Dillon's return before knowing our position. Dillon and O'Brien have hitherto acted in unison. If Parnell's benumbing spell should be thrown over Dillon as it seems to have been over O'Brien, the Irish cause would apparently be ruined, for the present at least. Without Parnell, reunion would be possible; with him, now or in future, impossible. There appears little prospect of his retirement in the hints that reach us of an understanding between him and O'Brien, only awaiting Dillon's return to take form. If the expenses, recriminations, and violence attendant on the Kilkenny election be any augury of what would occur in contests between Parnell and the country party over Ireland in a general election, many of the present National members would decline to stand, and the personnel of the party would be greatly changed.

Meanwhile, Ireland, for the hundredth time in her history, is to all appearances on the dissecting table. Unless union and the consequent American and Australian help be secured, it is doubtful whether the tenants' combination can be sustained for many days or weeks. And again over wide districts famine stares us in the face. We cannot question the motives of the Lord Lieutenant and Chief Secretary in appealing for aid, nor the wisdom under the circumstances of the means by which they propose to investigate and alleviate distress. Combined with grants for public works and railways, never was there a more energetic effort to combat distress in Ireland. But what a mortification to Irishmen, to have the management of their own affairs withheld from them, and then to have their miseries—the outcome, they believe, of misgovernment and that deprivation of rights—exposed to the world's inspection and commiseration. And what a commentary it all is on the attitude hitherto maintained by Mr. Balfour and his adherents towards the coerced, evicted, and harried Irish cottiers. Having with consummate ability beaten down and wearied out resistance, having swept some into prison, and the strongest opponents, O'Brien and Dillon, into exile (Parnell meanwhile playing his game), Balfour now believes himself master of the situation, and, as a beneficent deliverer, appeals for charity (which flows in abundantly from his friends), opens soup kitchens and public works in the west, and a depot for old clothes in Dublin Castle. If through all this the National cause survive, its vitality will indeed be proved. Apart from the treachery of Mr. Parnell, the home-rule cause has comparatively less force in Ireland than it had a few years ago when practically it had the field to itself. The "labor" question is now, under the ægis of Mr. Davitt and his *Labor World*, beginning to claim a large share of the attention of the operatives in the towns, and other tests than those of nationality and land reform are increasingly being applied to those willing to represent the people on local boards and in Parliament. The immediate appreciation that took place in many Irish securities after the proceedings in the divorce court, cannot be otherwise accounted for than as arising from the increased confidence of the capitalist classes in the commercial prosperity of the country consequent on the lessened chance of establishing a government in consonance with the wishes of the masses of the population. D. B.

DECORATION DAY IN JAPAN.

SENDAI, Japan, December 2, 1890.

As it is a popular notion that in many habits and customs the Japanese are directly opposite to the people of the West, it is interesting to observe how they keep green and fresh the memory of those who died in battle for their country. Up to the seventeenth century, when the Tokugawa Shoguns assumed control, Japan was a vast battle-field. The powerful families were at continual war with each other, and private feuds raged incessantly. There is a tendency at present among some to underestimate the beneficent work of the Shogunate, but, whatever else may be said for this dynasty, it put a stop to the terrible bloodshed, and gave the country profound peace for more than two centuries. Up to the events leading to the restoration in 1868, a maimed man was a rare sight.

To place the Emperor (Mikado), however, in the position of real as well as nominal head—a position which he occupied in primitive ages—it was necessary to use force, and again Japanese fought their brothers. In the contest that followed, many thousands were killed in the struggle from the Hokkaido (Yezo) to the southern end of Hondo, the main island. Later, when the reaction against the progressive notions broke out in Kiushiu, the most southern of the four main islands, again the country suffered the loss of some of the most loyal. To extinguish this last expiring blaze of feudalism cost several thousand lives. But since this rebellion in 1876–'77 there has been no serious conflict either without or within. As under the Tokugawas, tranquillity and quiet are spread over the land. Nevertheless the feeling of patriotism may be all the stronger. The devotion and loyalty of Japanese retainers to their lord have become well known. Now the country stands in the stead of the daimio, and martial patriotism treasures the past.

The celebration in honor of the gallant dead occurs at different dates in different parts of the empire. Here in Sendai it falls on November 23. The occasion is, of course, not observed with equal ceremony in all places. But in this city it is the chief of the eleven national holidays of the year, owing probably to the fact that there is a garrison of some five or six thousand soldiers here. These are very active in preparing for the event.

Sendai is a city of some seventy-five thousand inhabitants, but only a few hundred soldiers are buried here. As a fact, not one of the bodies rests here, but only the ashes, or some of the hair cut from the top of the head. Many of these remains of the dead rest in a solemn grove of dark, towering cedars, near a large and imposing temple, at the top of a high hill overlooking the town. It is almost inaccessibly situated across a rapid stream without a bridge. In the dim solitude of these tall trees there is the calmness and stillness of the heart of a primitive forest, though the centre of a large city is within ten minutes' walk. Other of the dead are in cemeteries around the city.

Several days before the date of this festival, committees are appointed to secure subscriptions from the merchants, business-men, and citizens generally. Usually this is managed by the union of all those along a certain street or in a certain quarter for a definite purpose. This year some combined to employ the band and others to provide the dancers, jugglers, and actors. The military element looked after the temporary temple and the horse races. The railroads, two in number, also contributed towards the expenses, and also got their share of the gains by cheapening the rates.

The occasion was utilized in a legitimate way by merchants and business-men to "turn an honest penny," and it is generally seized by the public as a time of universal holiday joyousness. There is no regular day of rest here as in the West, and these festivals are the only periods of cessation from toil on the part of the masses. What with the visitors brought by the railroads from points near by, farmers from the surrounding country, and the laborers taking a day of rest, the streets were thronged with an enormous crowd.

Before every house and over every shop waved a national flag, an emblem of simple but appropriate design—a solid red circle in a white field. It symbolizes the sun rising from the bosom of the Pacific, and typifies Japan's position as having an unobstructed view of the coming orb of day. With the wonderful appreciation of nature and fine taste which these people have, flowers and plants and evergreens were used in profusion for decorative purposes. Rare and valuable old screens were drawn from their hiding-places and stood in the front part of the shops, that all might see and admire. This disposition of these treasures cannot be appreciated without understanding that the first floor of all Japanese houses is less than two feet from the ground, and that the entire front wall consists of sliding doors which are removed during the day, thus giving one from the street a full view of everything within. It must also be remembered that the depth of the majority of the shops is less than twenty feet from the edge of the street. The streets are also very narrow,

LICENSED TO UNZ.ORG
ELECTRONIC REPRODUCTION PROHIBITED

the entire width from house to house not being much greater than double a single sidewalk in New York. Of course, there is no sidewalk or separate way for foot-passengers here; carriages, pedestrians, and animals all being mixed together in one roadway.

Along these narrow ways for two days a closely packed stream of people pressed and swayed, but all the time with the utmost good humor and light-heartedness. The costumes of the elders were dark and unvaried, but, with the children in their best robes, colors ran riot, and brightness and gorgeousness poured ceaselessly by. Every child was out to see the sights, no one being kept at home to "mind the baby." The smallest infant was strapped to the back of its elder brother or sister, and, safe on this perch, could roll its head from side to side, and peep over the shoulders in front and laugh and crow at the crowd around. The Japanese mother is very practical, and cares nothing for appearances if only the children are not lost in this multitude. Those next above the youngest, that can just walk, are tied around the waist with a long sash or cord, and are led all through the pressing numbers.

Especially around the *dashi* ("floats," or triumphal cars) do the children swarm. These *dashi* are very curious structures of a slender and perilous height. They are slightly made of bamboo and small timbers and light canvas. Their foundation is a very elaborate framework rendered very heavy by the intricacy and number of the pieces and joints. Above this the top towers some thirty or more feet, resting on small airy supports. The entire length is some fifteen feet, while the width is seven or eight. It was built to contain a representation of the ancient Court of the Emperor. Several figures of life size, either carved or made of plaster, and dressed in the old style, were standing on it. As befitted such an occasion, Japanese history had been drawn upon, and the scene was intended to appeal to the sentiments of courage and patriotism.

In one of the *dashi* was a hero of a thousand years ago, a member of the powerful Minamoto family, receiving the commission from his emperor to exterminate a nest of devils. They were known as *Oni*, their home was hell, and their work the torturing of men after death. In another *dashi* a real historical incident was illustrated. About a thousand years ago, all this northern part of Japan was subdued by a brave warrior named Abe. So extensive was his dominion that he defied the Emperor. The *dashi* shows a vassal, Yoshiiyé, receiving instructions to reduce this defiant subject in the north. As may be inferred from the use of this incident at this ceremony, the faithful lieutenant is entirely successful.

These ponderous floats are slowly borne on the shoulders of thirty or forty men from point to point along the main streets. The bearers are dressed in coarse yellow garments fantastically ornamented with some Chinese characters. Amid the excitement of the multitude and the loud shouts of the bearers, this creaking, swaying mass is carried a few feet and deposited for a breathing spell. In this laborious manner it is transported up and down the street during the day. Another point of attraction for the crowd is a movable platform for the girl dancers. These are naturally decked out in all magnificence, and perform whenever the car is not in motion. It is hardly dancing as we understand that exercise, but is more accurately described as posturing.

But it is on the outskirts of the city that the central feature of this ceremony is witnessed. Here is placed the garrison, on the site of the dismantled old castle of feudal times. In front is a wide, gently sloping plain. On this space were the race-course, platforms for dancers and for jugglers, booths, stalls, shows, exhibitions, statues of heroic size showing the triumph of bravery in the face of danger and death, monumental mounds, triumphal arches, and the sacred temple specially built for this occasion. There is no long procession and strewing of flowers on the graves. The remains of the soldiers are laid away in an inconvenient spot, but the celebration in memory of them can be observed in spirit anywhere; so the most convenient place for the assembling of the people and for the military is chosen near the barracks.

At one end of this open ground a temple is lightly erected, and tastefully hung with numerous flags and hundreds of lanterns, and prettily decorated with flowers and plants. At the further end is a small shrine of clean white and unpainted wood, with the altar and two or three steps leading up to it. In front a broad walk with a row of lamps on either side leads down towards the entrance to the barracks. At the temple is a magnificent high evergreen arch; at the end near the garrison gate is an evergreen *torii* (gateway).

In accordance with what seems to be a generally observed custom here of beginning everything as early as possible, the formal ceremony for the valiant men in their graves was to come off almost at sunrise. The exercises were very simple, solemn, and impressive. Before sunrise, military officers and civil officials began to assemble at the temple. When a sufficient number had gathered inside, a Shinto priest opened the ceremonies with the reading of a eulogy, at the signal given by the firing of a gun in the garrison. This occupied only a few minutes, and at the close of his address he laid some offerings of fruit and flowers on the altar. Then, one by one, the guests, in the order of their rank, went forward and paid their respects to the spirits of their comrades by bowing before the shrine. There was also some music by a military brass band. All who wished were at liberty to make offerings, and, after the general public was admitted, numerous gifts, chiefly of fish, fruit, game, and meat, were piled on and about the altar. An especially popular present was *mochi*, or rice cake, a peculiar kind of blue and white cake generally used on festival days. Although the crowds were afterwards allowed to walk in, the utmost decorum and quiet prevailed. There was no railing or barrier of any kind to keep out the inquisitive from handling the offerings and intruding upon the shrine, yet not even the children transgressed the sanctity of the forbidden limits. As if in full keeping with the *spiritual* character of the entire celebration, only a small cord laid on the ground to mark the limits for visitors, was needed to hold the sightseers in check. Not a single policeman was required to guard this holy place. In general the crowd for the two days was a marvel of order and quiet—no drinking, no boisterousness, no rowdyism.

C. Meriwether.

Correspondence.

THE SILVER BILL AND THE FARM MORTGAGE.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: The western boundary of St. Croix County, Wis., is but twenty miles from St. Paul, Minn. A local money-lender, representing New England savings banks, estimates the mortgaged acres at from 35 to 40 per cent. of the whole county. A local banker, representing private individuals in the East, thinks nearly half the farms of the county are mortgaged. Both agree that all the loans of which they have any knowledge are not payable in gold, but in "lawful money of the United States." I am familiar with the condition of the farmers in the famous Fox River dairy district of northern Illinois—a region where mortgages are not unknown—and never knew of a loan payable in gold there. These local instances lead me to think that Mr. Smith, in No. 1333, makes too high an estimate in saying that 75 per cent. of the mortgage indebtedness of the country is payable in gold. The gold-paying clause is more common in urban than in farm loans, and in the latter class more common in the new States west of the Mississippi than east of it, for in these the large loaning companies operate but little.

I wish, also, to demur to the manner in which the same correspondent refers to all men, and especially the mortgaged farmers, who favor the free coinage of silver, as knowingly and wilfully aiming to perpetrate a fraud. It is an easy thing to say "honest" granger, but that it is just I doubt. No one can live among farmers and see them battle, as most farmers have for the last decade, with the tremendous odds of lower and lower prices for all they had to sell, of failing crops, and, as a consequence, declining values of real estate, without knowing that, as the world goes, farmers are honest men. Their very existence, everything that they hold dear—the comforts of the family, home, all that appeals to man, even a city man—appeals to them to save, if they possibly can, the homestead, on which, perhaps, the best energies of their strongest manhood have been expended. They love the farm. It is a part of their very selves.

It is cold comfort to be told, as Senator Spooner (and this county is his home) told the Senate last winter, that he believed a mortgage was a "good thing" and a "sign of prosperity." The mortgage of prosperity does exist truly enough. It was in prosperity that many a farm mortgage was born. They can now be found on lots in every growing, booming city in the country, from Chicago down to the small capital that springs up where two railways cross. But it is the mortgage of adversity, I am forced to believe, that has been assumed or renewed by farmers so generally during the last ten years. Hoping against hope, every springtime they have planted, every autumn they have harvested, and again it has been good crops and no prices, or fair prices and no crops. Harassed on their downward way by tariffs that have risen

> "on stepping-stones
> Of their dead selves to higher things,"

they go on until they waken some morning to the fact that the interest alone on their mortgages exceeds the rental of equally good farms. They cannot sell their land for the indebtedness against it. Hopelessly bankrupt, they appeal to the holders of the loans for a scaling down of the indebtedness, for a lowering of the interest, and are met with insistence on the last penny named in the bond, or—the land.

It is a suffering, and, as they believe, a wronged people, who are crying for Government intervention, Governmental control of the railways, warehouses for crops, abolition of national banks, and the free coinage of silver. That they are mistaken and wrongly

LICENSED TO UNZ.ORG
ELECTRONIC REPRODUCTION PROHIBITED

advised, such books as Wells's 'Recent Economic Changes' and such articles as those of C. Wood Davis in recent issues of the *Forum* help us to understand. That they are dishonest and hope to pay their indebtedness in cheap money, cannot be seriously entertained. Rather is it their belief that the low prices of farm products result from a contracted currency which supposititious "gold-bug millionaires" of the East control for their own good pleasure, and that more currency will somehow restore the high prices of former years, and in that way enable them to pay justly and honestly all they owe.

It should not be forgotten that the decline in land values has wrought throughout the agricultural realm as much suffering as the present severe weather in Europe, only it is not so sure of relief. And it has been brought about by agencies that could no more be foreseen and prepared against than could the semi-naked citizen of Naples foresee and prepare against his unexpected visitation of snow. Conceive the wild uproar that would be raised if real-estate values in New York should decline year after year 10, 15, 25, 50 per cent. The people who are complaining now would make ten New Yorks, and their voice is but a gentle murmur compared to the Niagara that would burst forth from our city friends were they but called upon to endure a similar experience. —Respectfully, THEODORE JESSUP.

BALDWIN, WIS., January 23, 1891.

THE SILVER BILL AND THE PENSIONERS.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: In the discussion of the silver question and of the interests which may be affected by the substitution of silver for gold as the standard of value, no reference has been made to the scaling of pensions which must result from the threatened legislation and the consequent payment in depreciated coin. To readers of the *Nation*, this proposition requires no demonstration, but the thought may be new to many, that an organized body of voters exists—one especially powerful in Western States—which may be relied upon to resist the proposed change in value to the uttermost.

The pensioners of the nation form the largest "creditor class" that was ever legislated against, and, known as the Grand Army of the Republic, it inspires immense respect where Wall Street opinion would not have much influence. No body of men is so much interested. They have passed the years when a new income can be secured to replace one lost or reduced, and they have relied upon the nation's keeping its promises to pay in spirit as well as in letter. Having supposed their comfort assured in old age and decrepitude, they will not see this security removed without most vigorous resistance, and the politician who advocates the reduction of pensions by giving seventy-five cents where a dollar was promised, will shortly require a pension himself, unless he be the owner of a silver mine.

Assuming the President's veto of the bill which passed the Senate, all believers in honest payment of debts and in sound finance ought to unite in measures designed to enlighten the great body of voters who now receive pensions, or who seek them under existing laws, as to the effect upon them of the threatened free coinage of silver. W. B. T.

CINCINNATI.

MORAL EFFECTS OF A HIGH TARIFF.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: One of the moral effects of a high tariff is well illustrated by two incidents given me by good authority.

(1.) A certain manufacturer placed on the market a high grade of covered buttons, which sold at a less cost than many firms would make them for for the wholesale trade. Careful search discovered that the foreign agent of the manufacturer purchased silks, velvets, etc., on which was a high duty, and, by cutting the bolts of cloth through with a chisel, passed the goods through the custom-house as damaged. The material was of as much practical use as if intact. (2.) On fine gun-barrels (brought chiefly from Germany) was a considerable duty. By leaving the exterior but partly finished they were imported as iron *tubes*, bearing no duty.—Respectfully,

A. C. N.

WORCESTER, January 20, 1891.

FROM AN OLD FUR-TRADER.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: The late William Sturgis of Boston, who spent some years of his early life on the *northwest coast of America*, as a successful fur-trader with the Indians, said in later life: "I may well be grateful that no blood of the red man ever stained my hands; that no shades of murdered or slaughtered Indians disturb my repose. And the reflection that neither myself nor any one under my command ever did or suffered violence or outrage during years of intercourse with those reputed the most savage tribes, gives me a satisfaction in exchange for which wealth and honors would be as dust in the balance."

I send you this quotation with the hope that some of the men who are now responsible for our Indian affairs may read it, and at least wish that they could say as much. E. W. H.

CAMBRIDGE, January 25, 1891.

WASHINGTON'S PIETY.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: The enclosed abstract from an old book in my possession may have interest for the readers of Mr. Moncure D. Conway's letter in the *Nation* of December 11, 1890. Other parts of the book indicate the author's personal dislike to Gen. Washington, and want of respect for the religious observances of that day. He seems to tell the truth as he understood it, but may not have comprehended all he saw and heard, as was the case with the French gentleman he describes who was invited to five o'clock tea at Bath, where the guests sat around the room in a stiff circle, holding their tea-cups in their left hand and eating hot buttered waffles and chipped smoked venison with the fingers of their right, from plates in their laps. Waiters handed about tea and coffee, and the French gentleman, unaware that the position of the teaspoon in the empty cup returned to the waiter indicated whether or not it was to be replenished, politely drank fourteen cups of tea, and then in despair pocketed the cup and saucer, until the general rising of the company enabled him to rid himself of them.

The book is not altogether pleasant reading for patriotic Virginians, but, judged by recollections going back forty years, and a personal knowledge of the section described, tells, in the main, the truth, as far as I have read it. Very truly yours, P. L.

CUMBERLAND, MD., January 20, 1891.

"Nous étions chez Md. Throkmorthon, parente du général Washington. Cette bonne Américaine, par un désintéressement peu ordinaire aux personnes qui tiennent des pensions, fit assez mal ses affaires. Son cousin, du haut de la grandeur où la partialité et quelques services l'ont placé, semble ne pas appercevoir ceux de ces parents que la médiocrité entoure. Je lui demandai si son illustre allié était autant pénétré de l'importance des formes religieuses qu'il semble l'être par l'exactitude scrupuleuse qu'il met à les observer. Elle me dit qu'elle le croyait de bonne foi, qu'à la mort du père de Washington, qui était un déïste, le fils devint très religieux. Ce grand homme fait ses prières avec la régularité d'un moine, et va tous les dimanches à l'église édifier ses concitoyens par son recueillement et sa ferveur angélique. Chez un peuple dévot, cette conduite n'a pas besoin de commentaire." (*Voyage dans l'intérieur des États-Unis, à Bath, Winchester, dans la Vallée de Shenandoha, etc., pendant l'été de 1791, par Ferdinand M. Bayard.* Paris, 1797. P. 85.).

DISPOSITION OF THE RECEIPTS OF THE PASSION PLAY.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: During the past season there were in circulation many unfavorable reports in regard to the Oberammergau Passion Play. The press, both in this country and in England, abounded in statements like the following: That the play had degenerated into a money-making affair, had fallen into the hands of the Jews, who had advanced the necessary funds for its production and would appropriate the greater portion of the profits, while the villagers themselves, no longer actuated by the pious motives of their ancestors, were now seeking rather to enrich themselves than to carry out in a religious spirit the vow of 1633. The ecclesiastical authorities, it was said, now regarded the performance with coldness, if not with absolute disfavor, and were certain to prevent its continuance ten years hence.

It was the privilege of the writer to see the "Passion Play" for the first time in 1860, and he has ever since followed it with unabated interest. Although well aware of the utter falsity of the above statements, he has preferred not to contradict them publicly until the official account of the receipts and expenses should have been published. This has now been done, and it has occurred to him that the great number of his fellow-countrymen who attended the wonderful performances of 1890, might be interested in their material results.

The following statement is signed and published by the Bürgermeister of Oberammergau, who will be remembered as the *Caiaphas* of the play. It should be stated that the reckoning is in German marks.

RECEIPTS.

1. Received from tickets of admission	665,719.50
2. Received from the sale of photographs	27,000.00
3. Received from other sources	2,004.57
	694,724.07

EXPENDITURES.

1. Interest on acquired funds	6,527.60
2. Building expenses, including material	199,668.85
3. Paid those assisting in the play	242,830.00
4. Distributed to 238 householders, 180 M each	42,840.00
5. *Distributed to 29 families, 100 M each*	2,900.00
6. Applied to communal purposes, as follows: For building a new hospital; sewers; water supply; roads; protection of the river banks; fire engines; relief of soldiers, of the poor, etc	99,397.00
7. Reserved for other communal purposes, as follows: Towards a fund for the hospital; for the purchase of articles necessary for the church; for the poor fund; for the increase of teachers' salaries; protection of the river banks; public lands; technical education; extension of the system of canals, etc	100,000.00
Reserve	560.61
	694,724.07

From the above it will be seen that about $61,000 American money was the sum divided among those taking part in the production of the play, the amount being slightly less than half the net receipts. Those thus paid were 747 in number, and they assisted at 40 or more representations, each of which occupied an entire day. Mayer, the leading character, received $500; the manager, music-director, lead-

LICENSED TO UNZ.ORG
ELECTRONIC REPRODUCTION PROHIBITED

er of the chorus, and chief cashier, $325 each; while the actors were allotted sums varying from $225 to $37.50 apiece, the 269 children being divided into two classes, and paid, respectively, $20 and $10. The greater portion of what remained was divided between public charities and village improvements.

This disposes of the question of personal profit. The writer may add that he found in 1890 the same play and a people similar to the one he remembered in 1860, all actuated by the single desire of fulfilling the vow of the fathers and serving the cause of religion. The Church authorities have never ceased to extend to the Passion Play their entire approval, and Joseph Mayer stated that the question of its continuance had never been raised.

H. D.

Boston, January, 1891.

A FORGOTTEN NEW ENGLANDER?

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: Can any of your readers tell me anything of one N. Orchard, alleged to have been a New England preacher in the seventeenth century? He well deserves remembering. In 1676 there was "printed for the author" at London an anonymous book bearing this title: 'The Doctrine of Devils, proved to be the grand Apostacy of these later Times. An Essay tending to rectifie those Undue Notions and Apprehensions Men have about Dæmons and Evil Spirits.' It was a passionate attack upon the belief in witchcraft, which it declared "a bloody, barbarous, cruel, and murtherous opinion, an opinion that butchers up men and women without fear or witt [*sic*], sense or reason, care or conscience, by droves." The book attracted notice, and the defenders of the superstition, as Glanvil, gave space to its refutation; but they knew nothing of its authorship, and English bibliographers, down to Halkett and Laing and the British Museum catalogue, seem ever since to have shared their ignorance. In 1687 the Huguenot pastor Benjamin Daillon, then a refugee on English soil, translated it into French (at least, one of the four papers making up the volume published for him that year in Amsterdam bears precisely this title), but, so far as I can learn, without naming its author. In 1691, however, there appeared at Amsterdam a Dutch version, on whose title-page there were added to the translated English title these words: "In 't Engelsch geschreeven door N. Orchard, Predikant in Nieuw-Engeland. En volgens de Copy gedrukt tot Londen in 't Jaar 1676 vertaald door Wm. Sewel."

It was in that very year, and in that city, that there saw the light the epoch-making work of Balthasar Bekker—that 'Betoverde Weereld' which dealt a death-blow to the whole ecclesiastical theory of the devil. Orchard had anticipated many of Bekker's conclusions, and in the war of pamphlets which followed he came in for his full share of attack; but his Dutch adversaries, though they never questioned Sewel's ascription of the book to him, seem, like his English ones, to have known nothing more of him than the title-page told them. His Dutch translator, indeed, tells us nothing further, either of the author or of himself. The only addition which I can find him anywhere else to have made to his English original is a brief note, signed by him, to a passage of Orchard's preface, defending the Quakers against an aspersion of that author. But this is quite enough for William Sewel's identification: he was clearly the eminent Quaker historian so named—who was, as is well known, a resident of Amsterdam, and translated more than one English book into Dutch. And it is not less clear that Orchard was not of that faith.

But who was he? I find naught of him in Savage. The "N." may mean only that Sewel did not know his forename; and Orchard may be a variant for Archard or Archer; but this does not help. In his book itself not a word, either in preface or in text, suggests a New England authorship. Nay, there are many passages—as where he tells us how "in the last troubles we had informations (that went all the Kingdom over) from diurnals and other more credible testimonies, that our Northern zealots of Scotland butchered up many hundreds (I am ashamed to write the exact number because it is so monstrous) in a very short time more than there had been of all other sorts of criminals in fifty years before, upon the conceit of this guilt"—that could hardly have been written otherwhere than in England. But Sewel's phrase might still be true, if Orchard emigrated to New England later than the publication of his book. If at any time during the decade or two before the Salem panic there dwelt on this side the Atlantic so fiery a foe of the witch-persecution, it is well worth the knowing; for it adds one more fact to the evidence from which men will one day learn how, in our eagerness to clear our fathers by making their age their accomplice, we have done sore injustice to a multitude of thoughtful and kindly men who everywhere, and from first to last, stood against their bigotry.

Geo. L. Burr.

The President White Library,
Cornell University, January 16, 1891.

Notes.

Henry Holt & Co. will soon issue a series of brief burlesque ghost-stories, called 'Told after Supper,' by Jerome K. Jerome. The volume will be humorously illustrated.

Mr. Theodore Roosevelt's 'New York,' in Prof. Freeman's "Historic Towns" series, will be published at once by Longmans, Green & Co.

The second volume of the American translation of Sybel's 'History of the Founding of the German Empire,' which brings the narrative down to 1863, is announced as nearly ready by T. Y. Crowell & Co.

Macmillan & Co. promise shortly the 'Life of the Right Honorable Arthur McMurrough Kavanagh,' a country gentleman, landlord, M. P., and sportsman, born without arms or legs.

'Days of My Years,' reminiscences by the Rev. Joseph Cross, D.D., who tells of the early days of Methodism, and of the late war; and 'Thoughts on Life, Death, and Immortality,' selected from the unpublished writings of the late Bishop of Michigan, Dr. Harris, are in the press of Thomas Whittaker.

Benj. R. Tucker, Boston, is about to bring out a translation, direct from the author's manuscript, of Count Tolstoi's 'Church and State,' an assault on both from the Christian standpoint.

D. Lothrop Co. have in preparation a new four-volume edition of the 'Arabian Nights,' with an elaborate introduction by the Rev. W. E. Griffis.

The Shakspere Society of New York invites subscriptions to a four-text edition of "Hamlet," consisting of the three versions of 1603, 1604, 1623, reproduced with absolute fidelity, and a translation of a German version performed in Dresden in 1626, "which throws a curious historical light upon the actual stage reading of the tragedy as presented by the London actors." The edition will be confined to 150 copies, and will be *de luxe*. The clerk of the Publication Committee is Mr. L. L. Lawrence, 21 Park Row, New York.

There is little to remark on the sixth volume of the new edition of 'Chambers's Encyclopædia' (Philadelphia: J. B. Lippincott Co.). It ranges from Humber to Malta, two termini suggestive of the British dominions, which are, in fact, illustrated copiously in the articles India, Ireland, and London. On the other hand, of the dozen maps, eight are of States of the American Union. Something, nevertheless, might be said of disproportions and omissions in the American department, and as an example we will cite the article devoted to the publisher, Frank Leslie, while the pioneer abolitionist, Benjamin Lundy, is overlooked. "Jerrymander" is inserted without mention of the true spelling, though with a reference to Gerry in a previous volume; but there the reader is not warned that the G is hard. Italy is one of the longer articles, and there are two maps of the peninsula, ancient and modern.

"Treasure-house of Tales" is the comprehensive title devised for four attractive-looking volumes which come to us in a box from J. B. Lippincott Co. The edition is of English make and origin, and the connection between the several authors is their English nationality and contemporaneousness in time. The time was that of the Annual, to patient grubbing in which we owe a considerable part of the present collection. Each volume has an etched portrait frontispiece which is hardly to be called an embellishment; and each is introduced with a biographical, or, as in the case of Mary Shelley, a critical sketch. Thus, the prefatory memoir to the 'Tales of Leigh Hunt now First Collected,' is by Prof. William Knight of St. Andrews. There are twenty-eight of these short stories. Mr. J. Logie Robertson is sponsor for 'The Tales of Douglas Jerrold, now First Collected'—eighteen in number—and for the twenty 'Tales and Sketches by Benjamin Disraeli'; Dr. Richard Garnett for the 'Tales and Stories by Mary Wollstonecraft Shelley, now First Collected'—seventeen all told. It is obvious that we have here a large variety of easy fiction for leisure moments, and altogether a very instructive phase of a notable epoch in English literature. On both accounts the series of reprints is to be commended.

Swan Sonnenschein & Co. publish in their Social Science Series 'Luxury,' by Émile de Laveleye. In spite of most expansive "leading," they are not able to fill out the required number of pages without adding another essay by the same writer upon "Law and Morals in Political Economy," to which no allusion is made on the title-page. Readers who may think this measure generous will, we fear, be disappointed, for nothing could be thinner than Prof. Laveleye's thought, and he scarcely condescends to serious argument. His style, however, is so graceful as to make reading effortless, and those who care to learn the author's opinions and prejudices may find some entertainment in these pages. There is a pleasant classical flavor about them, and the sentiments expressed are elevated and serene. The chapters upon political economy are made up chiefly of platitudes, but they are agreeably expressed.

Everything comes to him who waits—for low-priced classics as for other things; and no more striking exemplification of the proverb has occurred of late than the Messrs. Harper's six-volume popular edition of Boswell's Johnson, edited by Dr. George Birkbeck Hill. It is

LICENSED TO UNZ.ORG
ELECTRONIC REPRODUCTION PROHIBITED

a little less than four years ago that we sought at some length to do justice to this admirable performance, and we need not repeat ourselves. The present reissue is fit to adorn any library, public or private, and its price puts it within the reach of almost everybody.

In like manner, if not in like degree, the two volumes of the Marchioness of Dufferin's 'Our Viceregal Life in India,' which came under our notice a year ago, have been compressed typographically into one, for a "new and cheaper edition," which is supplied to the American market by Scribner & Welford. A graphic view of the India of to-day is thus made popular in price as it is sure to be in the appreciation of readers. Had an index been added, it would have been much more valuable.

Another bargain is the new and inexpensive issue, in a single volume, of the 'Biglow Papers' (Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co.). It is the good wine that needs no bush.

That invaluable annual, 'The Year's Art,' edited by Mr. Marcus B. Huish, and published in London by J. S. Virtue & Co., makes a prompt appearance for 1891. It is the repository of compact information concerning organizations and institutions of art, chiefly for Great Britain and her colonies, but with a section reserved for the United States. It takes note of the leading exhibitions, of which it gives small select pictorial memoranda after the fashion of illustrated catalogues. Its directory of artists is indispensable. Along with this the annual now gives from year to year portraits of members of one or other society. In the present volume we have those of the Associates of the Royal Society of Painters in Water Colors, including Walter Crane and Du Maurier among the best known names, together with four ladies, Mrs. Allingham, Miss Edith Martineau, Miss Clara Montalba, and Miss M. Harrison.

Scribner & Welford send us the sixth issue for the current year of 'Hazell's Annual,' which truly purports to be "a cyclopædic record of men and topics of the day," and what the Germans call a "Conversations-Lexikon." As will be inferred, unlike the almanacs, such as Whitaker's, its arrangement is alphabetical, which does not, however, interfere with the fullest interpolations, tabular and other, as one may see under the headings Commons, Peerage, Foreign Navies, Diplomatic, Privy Council, Ministries, etc. But the minor topics and the biographies of "men of the day" are the great features. Take, for example, the entry McKinley Tariff Act, '90, which refers to the articles United States, United States Political Parties, and Trade, and then quotes the comments of Gladstone, Sir Michael Hicks-Beach, and Lord Salisbury on the act and its effect, with ex-President Cleveland's condemnation of it; indicates the confusion it has caused in foreign trade and manufacture, and the enhancement of prices in this country, notices the defeat of McKinley for reëlection, etc. Beecher Stowe, Kipling, Positivism, Portuguese Political Parties, Early Closing Association, Country Holidays Fund, Obstruction (Parliamentary), Parnell, Harrison, Photography, Turf (The), World's Fair "(see Chicago Exhibition, and United States)," Missionary Societies, Nicaragua Ship Canal, Noms de Plume, are other samples of the range of this work; nor must we omit the very copious Obituary (Dec. '89 to Nov. '90), though it is classified and therefore put under several alphabets, or the "Occurrences during printing," which take in Koch's lymph, the O'Shea divorce case, or, finally, the valuable "Reference index to previous editions."

MM. G. Charpentier & Cie., Paris, are publishing a series of novels by eminent authors, intended primarily for the youth of both sexes, but worthy the attention of older readers. The first of the series is 'L'Abbé Roitelet,' by Ferdinand Fabre, a little literary gem, containing admirable descriptions of peaceful clerical life in the Cévennes. Calmette's 'Sœur Aînée' is the simple but dramatically told story of an elder sister's loving devotion; though the elder sister is in reality a cousin. Theuriet's 'Le Bracelet de Turquoise' is a brightly related episode in the life of a newly married couple, the flightiness of one leading the other into crime. The line between the *livre pour la jeunesse* and the regular French novel is rather lost sight of in this book. The fourth volume of the series is a romantic story, the scene of which is laid in Mexico, familiar ground to the readers of Lucien Biart, whose 'Le Bizco' is not greatly different from his other works. Outside of this Charpentier series is Jean de la Brète's 'Mon Oncle et mon Cu é,' one of the sprightliest, wittiest, and most enjoyable books published of late, abounding in Musset-like touches, and certain to interest old and young alike, though not particularly intended for the latter.

With its fifty-fourth volume the London *Publishers' Circular* is transformed into a weekly from a fortnightly, broadens from octavo to quarto, and gains such an appearance of alertness and promptitude as should come from turning over a new leaf. The editorial article referring to this change tells of the reorganization of the firm of Sampson Low, Marston & Co. by the withdrawal of Messrs. Searle and Rivington, leaving Mr. Edward Marston at the head of the new direction. The number before us, No. 1280, is largely occupied with the Copyright Bill now pending in the Senate, and with the conflicting views of British authors and publishers regarding its probable effects. In the opinion of the *Circular*, it "will stimulate authors of reputation to greater effort than ever," and will also spur "the youthful or unknown aspirant to put forth his latent powers."

The London *Bookseller* for January 9 gives the full text of our Copyright Bill, and notifies its readers that "as American books are, in the near future, likely to become of increased importance to the trade," it will in future give its American list in a separate division, with the American prices appended.

Our readers ought not to be kept in ignorance of a brilliant gem, well-nigh a "perfect chrysolite," of old-fashioned criticism, contributed by Mr. George Saintsbury to the London *Academy* of January 10: "The scene of 'Doctor Cameron' is American; and, from the use of the perfectly idiotic term 'blonde,' for a man, we presume the authorship is American also." "Perfectly idiotic," to characterize supposed Americanity, *is good*. Interestingly, moreover, does the tone of Mr. Saintsbury's inference exemplify, *pace* the shade of Darwin, the sporadic survival of the unfittest. As to *blonde*, who is to say that, as it is already largely Americanized, it may not, eventually, likewise be thoroughly Anglicized, as of all genders? Its precise analogue would be found in *naïve*, or, as it is now often written, *naive*. Even according to so late and so high an authority as Dr. Murray, it is only "commonly" that *blond* occurs, except where a fair woman is intended; and his article on the word is headed "Blond, blonde, *a.* and *sb.*"

The January *Portfolio* (Macmillan) starts the year well with a photogravure after the Velasquez newly acquired by the National Gallery. It is a full-length portrait of an obviously fighting character, Admiral Don Adrian Pulido-Pareja. The chief article of the number is the first of a series by the editor, Mr. Hamerton, on the present state of the fine arts in France. He remarks that the political overthrow of 1870 had less effect on the *matter* of art than any preceding revolution, and that French productivity in art is by its very excess measurably independent of the Government's attitude as a patron or the reverse. What the Republic has done has been mainly to give security to art. Mr. Hamerton also discusses suggestively the question whether sculpture is not peculiarly entitled to fostering by Government, as being handicapped in the struggle for existence by the insufficiency (in the nature of the art) of private support. This paper and those which are to follow, it is intimated, are supplementary to the writer's works on 'Contemporary French Painters,' and 'Painting in France after the Decline of Classicism,' published more than twenty years ago.

The most interesting part of Mr. E. A. Maund's account of Mashona Land in South Africa, published in the January Proceedings of the Royal Geographical Society, is that relating to the ruins of Zimbabye and the surrounding country. They are built of granite "hewn into small blocks, somewhat bigger than a brick, and put together without mortar," a herring-bone course generally forming the ornamentation. In their neighborhood are always to be found gold workings, and some of them enclose circular roasting-floors. He suggests that they may be of Phœnician origin, but, in the discussion which followed the reading of the paper before the Society, Mr. J. Theodore Bent stated that he believed them to be Persian of the time of Kosroes II., A. D. 590-628, the conqueror of Egypt. In support of this theory he referred to the recent discovery of some very interesting ruins near Zanzibar which had been proved to be distinctly of Persian origin. This latter gentleman, well known for his explorations in Asia Minor and Persia, is about to go to South Africa with a view to the careful examination of these ruins. In this he will be actively aided by the British South African Company and the Royal Geographical Society, and his expedition will be well equipped for geographical as well as archæological survey.

A speech of Prince Nicholas of Montenegro to some of his soldiers, reported in the *Gazette* of Cettigne, seems to indicate the opening of a new era of prosperity for that country. After reproaching them for their exclusive devotion to warlike pursuits, he directs that "every Montenegrin soldier who lives where vines can be grown shall plant this year 200 vines. Commanders of brigades shall plant twenty, commanders of battalions ten, officers of lower rank five, and non-commissioned officers one olive tree apiece, and whoever shall voluntarily plant 2,000 vines this year shall be exempt from taxes for ten years." The *Gazette* believes that these commands will be obeyed by the army, and that 4,000,000 vines and 20,000 olive trees will be planted next spring.

"Hedda Gabler," Henrik Ibsen's latest play, is to be produced shortly at the Royal Theatre in Munich and at the Lessing Theatre in Berlin. The Director of the Dagmar Theatre, the first of the Copenhagen private houses, has made a proposal for producing the piece, but Ibsen is said to be waiting for a similar offer on the part of the Royal Theatre, where "The Lady from the Sea" was brought out. The book does not seem to have met with general favor in Denmark, where an Ibsen reaction has begun to set in. Some of the Danish re-

LICENSED TO UNZ.ORG
ELECTRONIC REPRODUCTION PROHIBITED

viewers even go so far as to laugh occasionally at the northern sphinx, and to accuse him of something very like posing.

—The February *Atlantic* uses for its leading article "Some Unpublished Letters of Charles and Mary Lamb," edited by Mr. W. C. Hazlitt. The main point of the editor is to declare that the Lamb letters have not been printed with that accuracy and faithfulness which he deems essential, nor so completely as may hereafter be possible; he desires an edition which shall be founded (so far as is practicable) upon a comparison of the texts with the manuscripts still existing, and which shall not be characterized by suppression or modification of the writer's phrases. This, coming on the heels of Ainger's recent edition, is very discouraging. As to the new letters in the present series, they are exceedingly trivial in interest, and it would be a generous scale indeed that should include them in any collection. At the present pace, the correspondence of any author who survives a decent number of years seems likely to exceed his published works, however voluminous; and we cannot think that literature will gain by approximating the model of its memoirs to that of a *Congressional Globe*. Schopenhauer succeeds Hegel as the philosophical topic, and Mr. Percival Lowell goes on to Noto by an easy canter, both mental and physical, and writes of trifling things with a charming *esprit*, being always facile, entertaining, and ingenious, and occasionally varying the ordinary text of travel with the moods of a sentimental journey, in no unpleasing way. Politics past and present provides three articles: an excellent portrait of Rutledge, a striking example of how the Civil-Service Commission brought up the quota of the Southern States, and a vigorous review of the French spoliation claims by Dr. Everett. A paper on the future of our public parks, by Alpheus Hyatt, dwells mainly on the utility of scientific collections to be made in them for popular instruction, and goes so far as to suggest that these should be so complete as to allow of loans of specimens for the use of schools and private students. The author deprecates the value of books in comparison with living examples—in zoölogy, for example—and would have a kind of live library of animals and insects to be used after the analogy of free libraries of books.

— *Harper's* reproduces for its frontispiece Sargent's portrait of Booth in a very unsatisfactory way, and one turns to Mr. Aldrich's accompanying lines for the true picture of the man. The number is liberal in travel articles, and gives Finland, the Strait of Magellan, and the desert of the Pacific Slope, all with plentiful illustration and a sufficient text. The other articles that catch the eye are the series of drawings by Thackeray out of an album, and the somewhat misleading title, "The Faith of President Lincoln." The latter article is mainly an account of why and how Chase resigned the Secretaryship of the Treasury and Fessenden received it, and of Lincoln's determination to make Chase Chief Justice, if the opportunity came to him, at the very time when he was making the change in the Treasury. Miss Hutchinson's extracts from the gossipy letters and characterizations of Willis, fifty years ago, are more entertaining than such papers are apt to be.

—*Scribner's* continues the subject of Japan in Sir Edwin Arnold's already sufficiently characterized papers, and of Africa in an historical review of explorations on that continent. Another paper on Neapolitan art introduces the works and career of Michetti, and is wound up with some brief notes upon Gemito. Mr. R. H. Stoddard tells of his autographs, with somewhat belated criticism of Addison, Dickens, and the rest of those represented. The most interesting piece in the reproduced autographs is a poem by Addison, hitherto unpublished, and now unfortunately dragged to light: it is an operatic song, utterly withered now, if a thing originally so artificial can be said to wither. The leading paper, on "Mount Washington in Winter," is the most readable part of the number, and gives occasion for some very striking cuts of mountain scenery in the arctic season.

—The Grolier Club of New York has already helped to raise the standard of book-making in this country, and its exhibitions are a constant incentive to further improvement. It has printed a catalogue of an exhibition of "Recent Book-Bindings, 1860-1890," held at its handsome club-house in the last week of December and the first few days of January. This catalogue, printed with dignified simplicity, as becomes the publications of a book-lover, has a brief introduction (by Mr. William Matthews, we understand), and it contains nearly 300 titles. The collection was one of extraordinary richness, containing as it did some of the best work of the late Trautz-Bauzonnet, of Mr. William Matthews, and of Mr. Cobden-Sanderson—the strongest names of the contemporary binders of France, America, and England. In its way and of its kind, nothing could be better than Mr. Matthews's 'Colin Clout' (No. 254), with its grasses and shepherd's pipes; or than M. Capé's 'Dialogue' (No. 238), with its adroit and satisfactory interlacing of two shades of red morocco; or than M. Petit's 'Rubáiyát' (No. 182), with the elegant simplicity of its Aldine pattern; or than Mr. Cobden-Sanderson's 'Aucassin et Nicolète' (No. 104), a triumph of formal decoration at its richest. Beautiful also, and more curious, were certain volumes bound for Mr. S. P. Avery; here we had books dealing with the minor arts, and each decorated with a specimen of the art it treats of—enamel, faïence, cloisonné, glass, etc. Certain other of the bindings exhibited by Mr. Avery were well worthy to drive the poor brethren of book-lovers to envy, hatred, and malice.

—To the January number of the *English Illustrated Magazine*, Mr. Cobden-Sanderson contributes a paper on the art of book-binding as he understands it and as he practises it; and the essay is well worth reading, for itself and for the light it sheds on the specimens of the art exhibited at the Grolier Club. Mr. Cobden-Sanderson's views are a little Ruskinish, which is against them; and his designs are akin to Mr. William Morris's and Mr. Walter Crane's, which is not against them, perhaps. But he has no difficulty in "making hay" of the views of Mr. Wheatley and other inartistic British writers who have discussed glibly the principles of the art, only to reveal their lamentable ignorance. Among the nine or ten half-tone illustrations which accompany Mr. Cobden-Sanderson's article is one of the lovely little 'Aucassin et Nicolète' shown at the exhibition of the Grolier Club. Another is a 'Story of Sigurd,' *simplex munditiis*. The best of these designs, as here reproduced, show Mr. Cobden-Sanderson's earnest striving to develop the art of book-decoration, and to take it out of the rut of slavish imitation of the departed masters.

—Mr. William E. Simonds of Connecticut, to whose intelligent activity the success of the International Copyright Bill in the House of Representatives must be partly ascribed, is circulating in pamphlet form his speech delivered on December 3, 1890. Mr. Simonds, we are glad to see, forcibly insists upon the enactment of the measure which he advocates because it is right, but he starts off by showing the material advantages involved in it, more particularly to American printers. He quotes the testimony of Mr. J. L. Kennedy, on behalf of the International Typographical Union, before the House Judiciary Committee, to the effect that if the bill becomes a law, "the literary and book-publishing centre of the English-world will move westward from London and take up its abode in the city of New York." As regards book-printing, this really seems to be the belief of the English publishers, to judge from a recent editorial in the London *Bookseller*. This possible result is, of course, highly gratifying to Mr. Kennedy, who points out further good things in the bill as follows: "The American author who goes abroad in search of a cheaper publishing market, sending his shell-plates over here to be mounted and to have his press-work done, or else sending the printed sheets home to be bound here, thus evading the heavier duty on bound books, will also be *compelled* [the italics are ours] to patronize home industry for his mechanical work. In short, it is not difficult for printers to see that such a law will confer inestimable benefits upon their own and allied trades." We should suppose not. The difficult thing to understand is, why, when the authors of the American Copyright League had consented to give up the privilege of printing their books abroad, the printers were so slow to see an advantage so obvious.

—Mr. Simonds believes in the author's natural right to protection for his productions, and says: "Either we must deny that the result of the foreign author's labor is his property, or else we must face the shame of confessing that we take his property simply because he is a foreigner and not strong enough to keep it away from us by superior physical force. . . . The author's title to his property is the very best; it is rooted in the creation of the article, and the world concedes that no better title can be imagined than that which arises from the making of the thing." To show the status of the United States, as compared with other nations, Mr. Simonds gives a table of the terms of protection accorded by the present copyright statutes of various countries. To this list should be added the following countries, all of them having passed copyright laws: Chili, Greece, Hawaiian Islands, Hungary, Luxembourg, Monaco, and Portugal. The terms of protection, also, for a few countries are not correctly stated, and should be corrected as follows: Bolivia, not only author's life, but fifty years beyond; Denmark, not fifty years, but author's life and fifty years; Hayti, not "author's life, widow's life, children's lives, and twenty years," but author's life, life of his widow, and to children, if any, for twenty years longer, but if no children, then to heirs or assigns for ten years; Holland, during life of author, if he survives the term of fifty years; France, author's life and fifty years, not thirty; Peru, author's life and twenty years, not fifty; Sweden, not author's life and ten years, but author's life and fifty years.

SIR WALTER SCOTT'S JOURNAL.

The Journal of Sir Walter Scott, from the original manuscript at Abbotsford. 2 vols. Edinburgh: David Douglas; New York: Harper & Bros. 1890.

WHO can reproduce the subtle charm and

LICENSED TO UNZ.ORG
ELECTRONIC REPRODUCTION PROHIBITED

pathos of Scott's Journal? The one English critic whose genius could find some happy word or sentence which was at once the explanation and the revelation of an author's true character is gone. Matthew Arnold has left no successor. Mr. Swinburne, when not carried away by the redundant flow of his own words; might, it is true, give us a criticism of Scott as brilliant and as truthful as his analysis of the poetry of Coleridge or of Arnold. Mr. Swinburne, however, has not, as far as we have observed, published anything on the last, and in one sense the most interesting, of Scott's works, and it may well be doubted whether there be any other living English critic who can utter the final word concerning the most delightful, if also the saddest, chapter of autobiography which for many a year has been added to the literature of England. Meanwhile, ordinary reviewers, not gifted with the insight of genius, must necessarily content themselves with that unsatisfactory form of criticism which consists in analyzing, as far as may be, the qualities of a literary work, without attempting to penetrate to the one predominant characteristic which, when discovered, gives unity to the apparently contradictory features either of a book or of a character.

In few literary products is this appearance of contradiction more clearly marked than in Scott's Journal. It is monotonous, yet it is full of interest; it contains no new information, yet it adds immensely to our knowledge of the man who was, not only in Scotland, but throughout the English-speaking world, the literary monarch of his day. The diary is in one sense very modern, for it appeals to that sympathy with individual feeling, to that intense desire to enter into the character and thoughts of striking personalities, which is a leading feature of our time; it is in another sense thoroughly old-world in tone and coloring, for to the discriminating reader every line of it discovers the untold change of thought, of opinion, and still more of feeling, which divides the present generation from the age of Scott, of Moore, and of Sydney Smith. It is little more than sixty years ago since Scott began his diary and wrote the greater part of it, but it is far more than sixty years—it is nearer a century—since the character of Scott and his contemporaries was formed. A small part of the Journal was penned in 1832, the substance of it was set down between 1825 and 1830; but its tone and sentiment are the echo, not of 1830, but of 1800, or it may be of 1790. In it the thoughts which filled the minds of the men who made the opening of this century glorious to England, are repeated by the greatest writer of that day to the generation who will see the nineteenth century to its close.

The monotony of Scott's Journal must, to any candid critic, seem indisputable:

> "Wrote my task, then walked from one till half-past four. Dogs took a hare. They always catch one on Sunday—a Puritan w'd say the devil was in them. I think I shall get more done this evening. I w'd fain conclude the volume at the Treaty of Tilsit, which will make it a pretty long one, by the by. . . . Then I will try something of my *Canongate*. They talk about the pitcher going to the well; but if it goes not to the well, how shall we get water? It will bring home none when it stands on the shelf, I trow. In literature, as in love, courage is half the battle.
>
> "'The public, born to be controlled,
> Stoops to the forward and the bold.'"

This, with slight curtailment, is the diary for October 1, 1826. It is a favorable specimen of the summaries of work and the notes of daily trivialities which fill up the mass of the Journal.

"Wrote my task"; "wrote five pages before dinner"; "wrought hard"; "I find the difference on 2,000 additional copies will be £3,000 instead of £1,000 in favour of the author. . . . Such another year of labor and success would do much to make me a free man of the forest"; "corrected proof-sheets in the morning for Dr. Lardner, then I had the duty of the court to perform"; "finished correcting proof for Tales, 3d Series. The court was over soon. I was much exhausted on the return home, quite sleepy and past work."

These expressions are picked up almost haphazard from different parts of the book. Take the Journal where you will, you will find sentences like them. They are, to a reader of an understanding mind, filled with pathos. But they are monotonous to a degree approaching dulness. Yet the book is full of intense interest.

Two circumstances relieve it from anything like dreariness. It is, it is true, in parts a mere memorandum of work done, but it is also, especially in its earlier portions, a picture gallery of characters. One can hardly fail to see that Scott intended that ultimately, though no doubt after his death, the Journal should be published, and he aimed at making it a series of sketches. Some of these pictures taken from life are as good as anything in his novels. Mrs. Coutts and her kindliness, friendliness, and vulgarity; Mackenzie, who lived to the world as the 'Man of Sentiment,' whom men supposed to be "a retired, modest, somewhat affected man, with a white handkerchief and a sigh ready for every sentiment," but was in fact "as alert as a contracting tailor's needle in every sort of business—a politician and a sportsman—shoots and fishes in a sort even to this day and is the life of the company with anecdote and fun"; Lord Minto and the curious legends of which he became the subject; Glengarry, who "is a kind of Quixote in our age, having retained in their full strength the whole feelings of clanship and chieftainship elsewhere so long abandoned," and "seems to have lived a century too late to exist in a state of complete law and order, like a Glengarry of old whose will was law to his sept"—and a dozen more of men, some unknown, some (such as Wordsworth or Pitt) whose names will never be forgotten, are brought before our eyes by vigorous sketches which, though sometimes mere outlines, are sometimes studied pictures drawn by the greatest novelist of his age. Among the most elaborate of these portraits stands one which well deserves attention, both because of its completeness and because it gives us the traits of a man whose character had a great deal to do with Scott's pecuniary calamities. Constable, writes Scott—

> "was a prince of booksellers; his views sharp, powerful, and liberal; too sanguine, however, and, like many bold and successful schemers, never knowing when to stand or stop, and not always calculating his means to his objects with mercantile accuracy. He was very vain, for which he had some reason, having raised himself to great commercial eminence, as he might also have attained great wealth with good management. He knew, I think, more of the business of a bookseller in planning and executing popular works than any man of his time. In books themselves he had much bibliographical information, but none whatever that could be termed literary. He knew the rare volumes of his library not only by the eye, but by the touch, when blindfolded. . . . Constable was a violent-tempered man with those whom he dared use freedom with. He was easily overawed by people of consequence, but, as usual, took it out of those whom poverty made subservient to him. Yet he was generous and far from bad-hearted. In person good-looking, but very corpulent latterly; a large feeder and deep drinker, till his health became weak."

If variety is given to the Journal by portraits of Scott's contemporaries, its vital interest is derived from another source: it is the truest portrait of Scott himself. From this point of view the very monotony of the book, the way in which it repeats again and again certain traits of the author, becomes its real charm. In Scott's nature were blended two features which, according to ordinary experience, are rarely found in the same character. Romance and imagination were in his case connected with great powers of action, with businesslike energy, and, to speak quite honestly of a man great enough to bear the most honest criticism, with prosaic and businesslike aspirations. He was a man of action, whose energy and imagination found, from the stress of circumstances, their chief sphere in literature. But he could hardly be called in the strict sense of the word a man of letters. His ambition and his weaknesses were not literary; he seems to have been absolutely free from the vanity or irritability often connected with a poetic temperament. He seems, further, where uninfluenced by romance, to have been little touched by higher aspirations which are at any rate supposed to be cherished by poets. Sense and imagination seem in him to have been almost equally balanced. The strength, indeed, and the solidity which marked one side of his character conceal, it may be suspected, from modern readers the strong element of romance, or even of dreaminess, which not only made Scott a poet, but, odd as the assertion may sound, moulded the course of his life.

Whoever wishes to realize what Scott was in youth should try, if possible, to see a picture of him in his earlier days possessed by Mr. John Murray, the London publisher. It contains traits of dreaminess hardly to be found in the better-known portraits taken of Scott in later life. But to an intelligent reader the Journal will supply the place of any portrait. The five years passed first in the dreams of love, and then in the sorrow of a hopeless lover, count naturally for very little in the pages of Lockhart's Life; but the letter from Lady Jane Stewart and his intercourse with his aged friend after the receipt of that letter till the day of her death, as well as the reference to his visit to St. Andrews, tell plainly enough how deep had been the impression made by Scott's first love, both on his heart and on his imagination. Never was a man less given to overestimate his own imaginative powers; he had none of the weaknesses which make some writers delight to dwell on their own dreaminess. Yet he himself knew that he was at bottom a dreamer:

> "I do not compare myself in point of imagination with Wordsworth—far from it; for his is naturally exquisite and highly cultivated by constant exercise. But I can see as many castles in the clouds as any man, as many genii in the curling smoke of a steam-engine, as perfect a Persepolis in the embers of a sea-coal fire. My life has been spent in such day-dreams. But I cry no roast-meat. There are times a man should remember what Rousseau used to say: '*Tais-toi, Jean-Jacques, car on ne t'entend pas!*'"

But, side by side with this most genuine and undoubted imaginative and romantic cast of mind, ran a vein of the most energetic turn not only for action but for business. To realize this side of Scott's nature, a reader should peruse the dull but instructive memorials of Archibald Constable. They prove that, long before the period of Scott's ruin, his literary powers had been turned by him to the purposes of trade. His writings were the huge, the inordinate contribution to the stock in trade of the firm or firms whereof he was virtually a member. A good deal is said both by

LICENSED TO UNZ.ORG
ELECTRONIC REPRODUCTION PROHIBITED

Scott and by Scott's critics about his desire to found a family and a family estate. This told for much, but it is difficult not to think that a real liking for the activity and the chances of business told for a good deal also. It is impossible to believe that he was a man really fond of money—his lavish liberality to others negatives this idea; but he was, it may be suspected, fond of money-making. He liked the activity of life; he worked best, as he believed, under pressure. He risked or sacrificed the attainment of literary perfection for the sake both of gaining the emoluments of literary success and of carrying out bold schemes of literary adventure. In this blending of imagination with habits of business he exhibits a curious affinity with one of the severest among his critics. Macvey Napier's letters contain a statement by Macaulay of his reasons for not reviewing Lockhart's 'Life of Scott.' They amount to this: that the review ought to be written by an ardent admirer, but that Macaulay, while admiring Scott's genius, and fully appreciating the strength of Scott's character, and especially his freedom from literary vanity, condemns strongly the weaker side of the poet's character, and especially his sacrifice of literature to his desire for gain.

The letter is, like most of Macaulay's criticism, a very vigorous statement of a one-sided view. It is true as far as it goes, but does not contain the whole truth. Perhaps the severity of the criticism was due in part to an indistinct consciousness of the likeness between the historian and the poet. In Macaulay's genius, as in that of Scott, there was, as any one will see who sympathetically reads Trevelyan's Life of his uncle, a strain of ardent romance. Each writer displayed that kind of historical imagination which consists in seeing, and making his readers see, the pomp and pageant of history. Each was a man the ardor of whose fancy never carried him far away from the ground of solid good sense; each blended literary power with keen interest in the affairs and especially the politics of the world. But the contrast between them lay in this: Macaulay, who actually took part in politics, was primarily and essentially a man of letters. Love of literature, and the ambition for literary fame, were the intellectual passions of his life. Scott, who never, except as an outsider, took a part in the game of politics, was at bottom a man of action. Both men had a keen appreciation of the solid advantages of a prosperous existence. This to a certain class of minds will always deprive both Scott and Macaulay of that admiration which is due to men who dream of, even when they do not always pursue, a high ideal. Both of them possessed this great quality, that they lived more nearly than most men up to their ideal. The apparent happiness of Macaulay's lot masks a certain latent heroism which never had opportunity for its full display. The calamities, on the other hand, which darkened Scott's later years, showed his full greatness to the world. The tragedy which destroyed his happiness as justly insured his fame.

All the world knows, in a general way, that Scott's strength, his mental powers, and at last his life, perished in the effort—in the main a successful effort—to pay the debts which he had incurred as a partner of Ballantyne's and also of Constable's. But the full heroism of the struggle can only be appreciated by those who carefully study the Journal. Scott could have saved himself from the labor, which was too great even for his gigantic powers of work, by becoming bankrupt. Many men would have thought that the sacrifice of the wealth which he possessed when speculation, for which he was only partly responsible, brought him to ruin, would have satisfied the claims of justice as fully as they in fact would have satisfied the demands of the law. His strong good sense freed him from any morbid fear of the mere name of bankruptcy. He says, in so many words, that he was afflicted by not being able to pay his creditors, that he recked little being called a bankrupt. He judged his position with characteristic coolness; he knew that a temporary sacrifice of wealth would have ended in securing to him ease and riches; but this course was forbidden to him by an almost stoical sense of duty.

"I could not," he says, "had I taken it, have slept as I now can under the comfortable impression of receiving the thanks of my creditors and the conscious feeling of discharging my duty like a man of honour and honesty. I see before me a long, tedious, and dark path, but it leads to true fame and stainless reputation. If I die in the harrows, as is very likely, I shall die with honour; if I achieve my task, I shall have the thanks of all concerned and the approbation of my own conscience."

This is the language of a man who never uttered a word of cant, entered in his private diary for his own eyes. The fate he foresaw overtook him. He did in substance achieve his task, but he died "in the harrows." He triumphed over difficulties which would have daunted any man of inferior powers; he fell before disease brought on by his own superhuman labors. In this point of view the monotonous records of his task-work, such as have been already cited, have immense significance. They are the memorials of constant, unremitting, and disinterested labor. No doubt Scott's literary reputation suffered as much as did his health by his absolute devotion to the one duty of paying his just debts. Task-work rarely partakes of inspiration, and the Journal itself shows, page by page, the gradual decline of its author's powers. As we approach the end, the vigor, the originality, and the variety which mark the earlier pages vanish. The one thing which does not disappear is Scott's determination to perform his appointed work.

Yet it would be an error to suppose that his genius did not show its force even in his later years. Much of the work which he produced between 1825 and 1828 would have gained high repute for any other man. 'Woodstock,' 'The Tales of a Grandfather,' 'The Life of Napoleon,' were all brought forth in these years. The latter has not held its own as a final estimate of the French Emperor. No work produced in 1827 could have contained the last word, or anything like the last word, on the character of Napoleon, and no book written under the conditions under which Scott produced the 'Life of Napoleon' could have become a classic. One volume was written in six weeks, but no man then living could have produced off-hand, under the circumstances under which Scott worked, so effective a piece of historical biography as Scott's 'Napoleon.' 'The Tales of a Grandfather' is not, and does not pretend to be, a work of erudition, but it is even now a model of the manner in which history may be written for children.

One other fact, which is not sufficiently noticed, adds a peculiar glory to Scott's labors. Misfortune neither crushed his independence nor soured his heart. Modern Liberals will not greatly sympathize with the political efforts of Malachi Malagrowther; but every man of spirit will admire the courage which made Scott, on behalf of what he deemed the cause of Scotland, beard the Tory Government from whom he might naturally look for patronage. The whole history of his generosity to Gillies shows how little his own mishaps deadened his zeal in helping others. But the most pathetic sign of his greatness, no less than of his kindliness, is to be found in his constant effort not to darken the lives of his children and of his friends by his own sadness. Scott says of himself that he was a stoic. The expression seems rather a strange one as applied to a man who enjoyed as intensely as he did the good and pleasant things of life. But Scott was right. The foundation of his character was stoicism of the noblest kind—the stoicism of a man who determined to bear all things bravely, and above all things took heed that his own suffering should not mar others' happiness.

CARLIER'S AMERICAN REPUBLIC.

La République Américaine: États-Unis. Par Auguste Carlier. Paris: Guillaumin et Cie., 1890. 4 vols., 8vo, pp. xvi., 588, 619, 597, 632.

M. AUGUSTE CARLIER, who died last March at the age of eighty-seven, was a French lawyer, but had retired from the practice of his profession at the age of forty-three with a competence, and had subsequently spent several years in travel in the various countries of Europe, studying their manners and customs, but more especially their political institutions. In 1855 he came to this country, remaining here more than two years, part of which he devoted to visiting all accessible sections of the Union, but also residing during considerable intervals in Washington, Boston, New York, and Philadelphia. In the last-named city he was elected a member of the American Philosophical Society. During his stay here he became intimately acquainted with many of our leading men, such as Thomas Benton, Judah P. Benjamin, Edward Everett, George Ticknor, Henry C. Carey, Josiah Quincy, Longfellow, and Sumner. It will thus be seen that he had opportunities of becoming familiar with the varied points of view from which Americans regard their own country. He took copious notes of everything he saw and heard and of his conversation with Americans, and after his return to France he continued his studies of our institutions by a diligent perusal of the principal printed sources of information, including not only such works as Bancroft, Hildreth, Story, but also public documents, reviews, and newspapers. Becoming convinced that Tocqueville had generalized on an insufficient basis of facts, and that consequently many of the conclusions drawn in 'Democracy in America' were unreliable and in need of rectification, he resolved on writing an exhaustive work on every aspect of American society, but subsequently thought it better to attack so vast a subject in sections.

The first fruit of his labors was a small volume on 'Marriage in the United States,' which appeared in 1860, and a translation of which, by Dr. B. Joy Jeffries, was published in Boston in 1867. While not free from such odd errors as foreigners are likely to fall into in judging so delicate a subject, it struck the right note in calling attention to the grave defects in our divorce laws, which were afterwards submitted to so searching a criticism by Dr. Woolsey. The other works of M. Carlier were: 'Slavery in its Relations to the American Union' (1862); 'A History of the American People and their Relations with the Indians to 1776,' 2 vols. (1864); 'The Acclimation of Races in America' (1868), and, finally, the book now before us, which occupied the last twenty years of his life, and is, no doubt, with its 2,452 pages, the most voluminous work that any foreigner has ever produced on our country—excepting, of course, Von Holst's 'Consti-

LICENSED TO UNZ.ORG
ELECTRONIC REPRODUCTION PROHIBITED

tutional History;' which belongs in another category.

The first book, filling 427 pages of volume i., is a history of the formation of the English colonies in America, and mainly an abridgment of the author's previous history in two volumes. In making this abridgment M. Carlier keeps his eyes constantly fixed on the constitutional development, on the growth of political institutions, on the modifications slowly undergone in the colonies by the common law of England, on the growth of town government, and other cognate topics. The second book, which occupies the remainder of the first volume, is a history of the War of Independence and of the Confederation, also keeping the political element chiefly in view, and showing how the necessity of a firmer union made itself felt by men of all parties. The second volume opens with book third, describing the labors of the Convention and the Constitution which they produced. The method pursued is somewhat peculiar. The Constitution is presented, not merely as it left the hands of the Convention, but as it is in force now, after having undergone various modifications. Thus, a special section of one of the chapters gives an account of the law of 1886 changing the succession to the Presidency in case of the incapacitation of both the President and the Vice-President. There is also a history of the Electoral Commission of 1876. As the following book gives a separate account of amendments to the Constitution, it would seem as if any but American readers must find some difficulty in getting an entirely clear idea of the subject. Book 4 treats of the organization of the Government and the amendments to the Constitution; like some of the preceding divisions, it is partly historical, partly expository. The thirteenth, fourteenth, and fifteenth amendments are each made the subject of a separate chapter. The ministerial departments of the Government, that is, the Department of State, the War Department, and so on, are next taken up and described, one at a time. There is also a chapter on the civil service.

Book 5 treats of the human races in the United States—that is, the white, the red, the black, and the yellow, as the author classifies them. The naturalization laws are also considered. The sixth book is a history of the District of Columbia and an account of its peculiar form of government. This anomaly, which we accept as a matter of course, would naturally excite the curiosity of a foreigner. Of the sixty millions of our people, the inhabitants of Washington alone never vote and have no voice whatever in the government of the country or even in their own local affairs. So complete an atrophy of home rule and so perfect a specimen of paternal government it would be hard to match anywhere in Europe outside of Russia. The seventh book treats of the Territories, giving a general account of their history and legal status, as well as a separate history of each Territory and a geographical and statistical description. The eighth book, containing 150 pages, and completing volume ii., is called "The National Domain," and treats of the public lands, the Homestead and Preëmption Laws, the Yellowstone Park, Bounty Land Warrants, the cessions of land to colleges and to the Pacific railroads, and the Inter-State Commerce Act, although the last-named subject is not logically related to the matter in hand. With an equal disregard of strict logical consistency, we have here a history and description of the several Pacific railroads. An appendix contains a translation of the Constitution.

Volume iii. begins with Book 9, treating of the Army, the Navy, and the Militia, in 120 pages. It contains a varied mass of information on such topics as the condition and pay of officers and privates, the articles of war, courts-martial, the judge-advocate, the academies at West Point and Annapolis, the marines, the organization of the militia, etc. Book 10 (200 pages) treats of the State governments, and Book 11 (112 pages) of local government, describing the Borough, Village, Town, Township, City, and the organization of municipal corporations, and devoting separate chapters to the municipal institutions of New England, of New York, of Illinois, to the city of New York, to county government. Book 12 is on religious institutions from a legal point of view, embracing such topics as the marriage and divorce laws, the exemption of churches from taxation, etc. Book 13, completing Volume iii., describes our system of public instruction, from the common schools up to the universities and including the public libraries.

Vol. iv. opens with Book 14, which gives, in 239 pages, a detailed account of the judiciary system of the Union and of the States, including the jurisdiction of the various courts, the manner of appointment and election of judges, the function of marshals and other court officers, the jury system, the character of the legal profession, the method of impeachment, etc. The remainder of the volume, comprising 407 pages, is an elaborate history of the treatment of the Indians from the Revolution to 1888; the period before the Revolution having been covered by the previous history of the author, already mentioned. It is not merely a history, for it also describes the mode of life of various tribes of Indians, as well as the efforts made for their education, giving an account of the Hampton and Carlisle schools and other minor establishments.

Naturally, the first question that suggests itself in regard to this work is as to its relation to the classical treatises of Tocqueville and Bryce. M. Carlier himself challenges comparison with Tocqueville by frequent corrections of statements made by the latter in conflict with facts as ascertained by the later author. Undoubtedly M. Carlier has collected a far greater mass of material than Tocqueville, and even greater than Bryce; but he is not their equal in insight or in philosophical breadth of view. Although half a century has passed since Tocqueville wrote, and many startling changes have taken place in the interval, Tocqueville seized the salient points of our institutions and national character with the intuition of genius which can do wonders with the scantiest materials, and which the widest range of information cannot wholly replace. Mr. Bryce, by virtue of his practical knowledge of English politics, of his previous studies, of the natural bent of his mind, possessed qualifications for his task which we could hardly expect to find united in another writer, and least of all in a Frenchman. But while it is no disparagement to M. Carlier to pronounce him inferior to the two eminent writers with whom he competes, and while he has left untouched some very interesting subjects which they have treated in so masterly a manner—as, for instance, the influence of our institutions on our intellectual and literary development—it must be said, in his favor, that he includes a number of topics which they have not touched upon, and which add greatly to the value of his book. The chapter on the District of Columbia has already been referred to. What is perhaps the most useful part of the book for American readers is the long account of the Indians with which the work closes, and which contains information collected from a variety of sources and nowhere else brought together in so compact and convenient a form. Altogether we have here an encyclopædia of facts concerning our country, which only needs an index to make it a valuable work of reference. In the main it is an exception to the proverbial inaccuracy of French writers when treating of English or American affairs. It is true the author sometimes falls into an odd blunder, as when he speaks, on more than one occasion, of offices being held "till good behavior," or when he says that the University of the City of New York is maintained at the public expense. A more serious fault is that the book is not up to the same date in all its parts, and various portions of it seem to have been finished at various times. Thus, although in regard to the admission of new States and other facts M. Carlier comes down to 1889, he does not seem to know that the Commissioner of Agriculture has been raised to be a Cabinet Minister, or that the city of New York is no longer governed under the Act of 1882, which required the Mayor's nominations to office to be confirmed by the Aldermen. But in a work of such magnitude a few small errors are to be expected, and hardly detract from its undoubted merits. European readers who study this book together with that of Mr. Bryce will know more about us and our belongings than many an educated American knows about his own country or any other.

TUTTLE'S FREDERIC THE GREAT.

History of Prussia under Frederic the Great. By Herbert Tuttle, Professor in Cornell University. Two volumes: 1740–1745, and 1745–1756. [Cited in Index as History of Prussia, vols. ii. and iii.] Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co.

In a volume published several years ago, Prof. Tuttle sketched the beginnings of the Prussian State, and described the development of the monarchy under the first two Kings. In his two later volumes he covers only one-third of the reign of Frederic II., the narrative closing with the outbreak of the Seven Years' War.

It is clearly the plan of the author to write institutional history; and although the personality of Frederic the Great has modified the execution of the design, and made portions of these later volumes almost purely biographical, the original purpose has not been sacrificed. It is the entire life of the State that is depicted. Diplomacy and war do not so fill the field of view as to obscure the methods of internal administration or the social and economic development of the people. But while the plan is admirable, the execution leaves something to be desired. The author, who was a journalist before he became an historian, obviously wishes to give his readers résumés, characterizations, rather than undigested masses of facts. But there is more than one method of digesting facts. Prof. Tuttle's may be described as judicial: he sums up and charges. He is not content simply to describe an institution—he is irresistibly moved to pass judgment upon it; and his chief desire seems to be the communication to the reader of his own opinion. When, for example, he tells us how justice was administered, the revenue collected, agriculture fostered or burdened, trade promoted or handicapped, we gain but a general and hazy idea of the facts, a mere inkling of the purpose of the legislator, but a very distinct im-

LICENSED TO UNZ.ORG
ELECTRONIC REPRODUCTION PROHIBITED

pression of the author's approval or disapproval of the measures in question. He has obviously studied the evidence in each case, but it is the judgment that we get, and not the record upon which the judgment is based. As to the value of the judgment, this seems to us to be partially vitiated by a too modern point of view. The problems presented in welding a heterogeneous population into political unity are not sufficiently distinguished from those which arise in administering a State already formed, with the consciousness of unity imbedded in the minds of its inhabitants.

It is in much the same spirit that the author approaches Frederic the Great. The policy and morality of each act are weighed; the genius and the character of Frederic are constantly criticised. The historian is always on the bench; the King is always at the bar—if not in the dock. The judgment itself is frequently able and suggestive. Prof. Tuttle's estimate of Frederic's genius is saner and truer than Carlyle's. There is, in the second of these volumes (the third of the entire history), a striking analysis of the King's strength and weakness as a soldier, a diplomatist, and an administrator. Starting with the indisputable proposition that Frederic's tactics were far superior to his strategy, the author points out that the same merits and defects which characterized Frederic's generalship appear in his conduct of foreign affairs and of internal government. He had more insight than foresight. In the moment of action, and all the more if the moment were one of peril, he was singularly fertile in expedients and quick to choose the most hopeful. But he lacked the patience, perhaps the ability, to calculate beforehand, in a protracted military or diplomatic campaign or in a wide-reaching movement of internal reform, the course of action which would secure the most lasting advantages with the least risk. It was not a far-sighted diplomacy which left Prussia exposed to a coalition between France, Russia, and Austria. It was not the highest statesmanship which made the officials of Government automata. But, after all these allowances, with what indomitable courage, inexhaustible resource, and elasticity under defeat were the perils of the Seven Years' War surmounted; and how extraordinary were the results accomplished by the governmental machine that Frederic had perfected! It is the most striking portion of this brilliant career that the author has yet to describe, and the picture which he now presents to us is necessarily an imperfect one. If he carries the history on through the Seven Years' War, it is not probable that he will see cause to retract or modify any of his judgments; and yet the impression left upon the minds of his readers will not be the same when Frederic's whole career is considered, in place of a part.

In estimating Frederic's moral character, the author condemns without qualification and with no recognition of "mitigating circumstances." Some writers would be disarmed by Frederic's own frankness. The King who wrote to his Minister, just before the unprovoked invasion of Silesia, that it was time to work up the question of Prussia's legal claims, "*for* the troops have received their orders"; who explained to Voltaire that "ambition, interest, the desire to make people talk," determined his action; who said to Montalembert, after the partition of Poland, "Of course Catherine and I are two brigands, but I should like to know how Maria Theresa has arranged the matter with her confessor"—the King who thus confessed judgment on the score of morality does not seem to need further censure. To many besides the author, it is true, such utterances mean only that Frederic added cynicism to unscrupulousness. But if cynicism is preferable to hypocrisy, Frederic stands morally above most of his contemporaries and many statesmen of the present century.

It does not seem to occur to Prof. Tuttle that Frederic's cynical avowals may be viewed, on the one hand, as the reaction of a thoroughly genuine nature against cant, and on the other as a demurrer against the applicability of private morals to international affairs. The doctrine of the *grande morale* is indeed repudiated by most moralists, and is certainly a dangerous one. The rules of this system—if there be any—have not been worked out with the relative precision which characterizes ordinary or "little" morals. But most statesmen have recognized the difficulty of squaring political action with ordinary standards. Cavour recognized it when he said: "If we had done for ourselves what we have done for Italy, we should be great scoundrels." The standard to which Cavour here refers his conduct, and by which he impliedly justifies it, is the interest of the State. The interest of the State was the avowed standard of Frederic's actions, and no one has ever more thoroughly fitted his deeds to his creed. He was not merely the first, but the most faithful, of its servants. He considered himself the trustee of its interests. In his personal affairs, he might, if he chose, be generous; as head of the State he had no right, he declared, to sacrifice its interests to generous impulses or to moral scruples. We may well hesitate to accept such a rule of political action; but before criticising the statesman who accepts it and acts upon it, we should try to understand it, as it seems to us Prof. Tuttle does not. For a single example, take his discussion of Frederic's withdrawal from the Franco-Bavarian alliance in 1742. Prof. Tuttle writes:

"A favorite figure by which he [Frederic] described his policy was taken from a shipwreck at sea, where each person saves himself as best he can. That kind of selfishness often characterizes, it is true enough, the conduct of passengers on a shipwrecked vessel. Is it not also true that the world generally reserves the title of hero, not for the man who in the hour of danger seizes the first boat and escapes, but for the faithful captain who remains at his post until all the others are saved, and is the last to leave the sinking ship?" (Vol. ii., pp. 188, 189.)

Is it not also true that the writer of these lines has wholly failed to distinguish between the sacrifice to duty of one's self, and the sacrifice to a generous impulse of interests not one's own, but held in trust? In his picture of the heroic figure on the ship's bridge, he forgets that the question was not of Frederic's escape from personal peril, but of the safety of the Prussian State. He confuses what it is Frederic's great merit to have distinguished, the interests of the head of the State and the interests of the State itself. Of the heroism of self-sacrifice for the State Frederic repeatedly showed himself capable; most strikingly, perhaps, when he directed his ministers, in case of his capture by the enemy, to disregard him entirely and act only in the interests of Prussia. Had the King adapted his conduct to the historian's standard, it is safe to say that Prussia would not to-day be a State of the first rank, nor at the head of united Germany. It is not improbable that it would have ceased to exist.

In his preface to the first of these volumes, Prof. Tuttle apologizes for treating the subject after Carlyle. The apology is unnecessary. In the first place, much of the material now accessible to the historian of this period was inaccessible to Carlyle; and this newly published material Prof. Tuttle has evidently studied and used. In the second place, Carlyle wrote less as an historian than as an advocate. Our author, although he strives to be judicial, is something of an advocate too; but he is less of one than was Carlyle, and he is retained by his sympathies for the other side. He is *advocatus diaboli*, and objects, with much force, to the canonization of Frederic as a "Protestant hero." His book, accordingly, will furnish a very useful corrective to Carlyle's—if the same public will read it. It is an easier book to read, because it is more simply written; but it is also an easier book to lay down unfinished. As literature, the two books are not in the same class. As a history (which, according to Prof. Seeley, should have no literary quality at all) Prof. Tuttle's book is the better. There is not only room for both these books, but for a third, in which Frederic shall neither be assailed nor defended, neither condemned nor canonized, but simply explained.

The book is carefully written, and, in the main, carefully printed. A reference to the "Prussian rifles" (vol. ii., p. 158) seems anachronistic. There are some misprints, especially in foot notes (see vol. ii., pp. 38, 63, and 64), but we have found only one that is misleading. In vol. iii., p. 85, it is stated that Frederic William I. left the regular army "at some eight thousand." The author undoubtedly wrote "eighty thousand." The volumes are admirably indexed.

The First Crossing of Greenland. By Fridtjof Nansen. Longmans, Green & Co. 1890. 2 vols., 8vo, xxii, 510, and x, 509 pp.

THE author of these two portly volumes, a native of Norway, and a scientific student in the University of Kristiania, began his arctic experiences in his twenty-first year, accompanying the sealer *Viking* in 1882 to the region between Spitzbergen, Jan-Mayen, and Greenland. When fast in the ice off the Greenland coast, the idea occurred to him that it might be practicable to land and cross the inland ice. On his return to Norway he was appointed Curator of the Bergen Museum, where he remained engaged in zoölogical studies until 1888, receiving his doctor's degree in 1887. In 1889 he married a sister of Prof. G. O. Sars of the University of Kristiania, and at the present time is engaged in preparations for an arctic expedition planned for 1892.

The idea of exploring the frozen interior of Greenland was broached publicly by Dr. Nansen in 1887, when he made an unsuccessful appeal to the Norwegian Storthing, through the mediation of the University, for a grant of some $1,400 in aid of such a journey. A liberal Danish gentleman, Mr. Augustin Gamél, the patron of the *Dijmphna* expedition of 1883, generously offered to provide the necessary funds. This offer was gratefully accepted by Nansen, and the preliminaries were entered upon at once.

An important element in the plan consisted in the use of *ski* (pronounced "she"), or the flat wooden snow-shoe in use in so many northern countries. Nansen himself is an expert in their use, and, to carry out his ideas, it was necessary that the remaining members of the party should be well skilled in the management of these, to Americans, rather unfamiliar articles. With their aid, under favorable conditions of weather and snow-surface, long distances can be accomplished in a remarkably short space of time. In 1884, during some experiments conducted by Baron Nordenskiöld in Lapland, a Lapp thirty-seven years of age in

LICENSED TO UNZ.ORG
ELECTRONIC REPRODUCTION PROHIBITED

21 hours and 22 minutes made a run of 220 kilometres, or more than 136½ miles. Ordinarily, with good conditions prevailing, a practised man should cover forty or fifty miles a day. In America the conditions do not seem to be generally as favorable for the use of ski as in Northern Europe, and the long practice necessary to become expert, or even to be moderately comfortable while using these shoes, militates against their introduction. The long, narrow Indian snow-shoe of the Hudson Bay and Alaskan region is much better suited to the loose, dry snow ordinarily prevailing, and, so far, there are no signs that they will be superseded. So important for the success of his plan was the use of ski that Nansen incorporates in his book a chapter entirely devoted to them, their names, geographical distribution, and classification.

The party consisted of Dr. Nansen, assisted by Otto Sverdrup, Lieut. Oluf Christian Dietrichson, and Kristian Kristiansen Trana, besides two Lapps, Balto and Ravna. They left Kristiania in May, 1888, for Iceland, via Leith, having made arrangements with the owners of the sealer *Jason* to be called for at Isafiörd early in June. The *Jason* was to do its best to put them ashore on the east coast of Greenland, after which their fate depended upon themselves. Their outfit was, of course, carefully considered, and consisted chiefly of light hand-sledges, tent and bedding, a spirit lamp and cooker, condensed rations, and boats for the Greenland landing.

On the 17th of July the party left the *Jason* off Sermilik Fiörd, about latitude 65° 30', and succeeded in getting within less than ten miles of the coast. But the fates were against them, and it could not be attained. A drift of ten days in the floe ice carried them southward some 230 nautical miles, when they were enabled to penetrate the broken floe and work with oars and sails, under cover of the shore, in the painful endeavor to recover the lost ground. Their journey was enlivened by an encounter with the East Greenlanders and a short stay at one of their encampments. On the 10th of August a definitive landing was made in latitude 64° 23', at a small bay defended by bare rocky points and islets, known as Umivik. At nine in the evening of August 15, all arrangements having been completed, the party set forth.

For a week they struggled over the crevassed surface and steep ascent of the seaward face of the inland ice. After that, crevasses were heard of no more, the surface becoming prairie-like; sometimes, owing to the fine powdery snow, very hard going for both sledges and ski. Some Indian snow-shoes proved their worth at such times. The general direction taken was a little southward of west; the greatest height attained on the ice was 8,922 feet; the temperature at night was unprecedentedly low, reaching —50° F. at times. During the day it would be about zero Fahrenheit, or even higher. The distance over the ice from coast to coast on the line traversed is about 9°, or about two hundred and seventy-five statute miles. The land of the west coast was seen on the 19th of September, on which day, aided by a strong breeze and improvised sails, the travellers covered about forty miles of the descent. But it was not until the 24th that they were free from the dangerous margin of the inland ice and actually stood upon bare ground beyond it. The point reached was the head of Ameralikfiörd in latitude 64° 13'. Here a boat was constructed of canvas somewhat resembling a coracle, in which Nansen and Sverdrup happily reached Godthaab, where they were warmly welcomed. A messenger was despatched to the last ship of the season, which was at the cryolite mine of Ivigtut, on the point of departure for Europe. It was too late; the captain did not feel authorized to return to Godthaab, but was able to carry back to civilization the news of their success and safety. The winter in Greenland and the scientific results afford material for several chapters.

The book is pleasingly written and well translated. The attempt was a bold one, and the success complete and well deserved. It is but just to say, however, that the scientific results, though valuable, are chiefly confirmatory of what had previously been believed, on circumstantial evidence, by most students of arctic matters. It is now settled that the interior of Greenland, south of latitude 70° N., is covered with a low, nearly smooth dome of ice and snow, from which no peaks project, which is free from crevasses, and which yet, from the character of its surface, is not easy to travel over. The very low night temperatures and the wide range between night and day temperatures form the most striking feature of the meteorology.

By way of criticism, it is obvious that Dr. Nansen is diffuse. This diffuseness is aggravated by the publishers, who have double-leaded the text, and we have two uncomfortably heavy and unwieldy volumes, containing matter which had better have been compressed into a single volume of half the size of either. The book is well illustrated and printed; the binding is flimsy and in bad taste; the index is satisfactory.

Memoirs of the Military Career of John Shipp. London: T. Fisher Unwin; New York: Macmillan & Co. 1890.

THIS is a reprint of the edition of 1843, and is the third volume of the "Adventure Series." The drag-net of the editors of this collection will doubtless bring back to the light of day many long-forgotten tales of hair-breadth 'scapes by land and sea, but it is doubtful if they will come across such another combination of humor, pathos, and extraordinary vicissitudes as that which fascinates the reader of these memoirs. That a man should have twice won a commission from the ranks by the time he was thirty, without any of the advantages of education, and by sheer force of merit, is a unique performance in the annals of the British Army, and bespeaks the possession of unusual capacity; but none of his military achievements seem more admirable than is this modest account of them.

John Shipp was born in 1784, and, having early lost his parents, passed a miserable boyhood in the service of a brutal farmer. So wretched was his existence that he hailed with delight the chance of enlisting—at the tender age of thirteen years—in one of the "experimental regiments" formed for the training of boys in that warlike epoch. His uniform was so much too big for him that if his martial ardor had not been of lasting quality, it would surely have been quenched by ridicule. But he bore without flinching the jeers of his companions, as he did also the dressing of his hair in the military fashion of the time, which drew the skin of the face so tight that the unfortunate private could not possibly shut his eyes! In the year 1803 Shipp's regiment was ordered to India, and he gives a vivid account of life on a troop-ship, on board of which several infectious diseases were raging at the same time. After a stay of some months at the Cape, where his military career was nearly ended by a love affair, he again embarked in a small *American* vessel for Calcutta, and, after a voyage of five months, rendered perilous by the tendency of the vessel to take in water as her captain did grog—in excessive quantities—he gazed upon the "beautiful fortifications of Fort William and the city of palaces beyond with astonishment and delight." He was soon marched up the country to take part in the siege of Bhurtpore, and it was here that he first showed the remarkable courage and devotion to duty that gave assurance of his success as a soldier. He led three forlorn hopes in desperate and unavailing assaults on the fortress, and, though badly wounded in several places, was soon in fighting trim again.

He thus describes the sensations with which he entered on these terrible encounters:

"In these moments there is an indescribable elation of spirit; the soul rises above its wonted serenity into a kind of frenzied apathy to the scene before you—a heroism bordering on ferocity; the nerves become tight and contracted; the eye full and open, moving quickly in its socket with almost maniac wildness; the head is in constant motion; the nostril extended wide, and the mouth apparently gasping."

It would be interesting to know how far this expert testimony is borne out by the recollections of others who have passed through similar ordeals. In one point we feel certain that Shipp's opinion would meet with general acceptance among soldiers, namely, that liquor will not inspire courage on such occasions, or, as he puts it: "If a man have not natural courage, he may rest assured that liquor will deaden and destroy the little he may possess."

Promoted to a lieutenancy in 1805 for brilliant services in the field, Shipp returned to England in 1807, and, becoming involved in debts, obtained leave to sell his commission. With the proceeds he paid all he owed, and, six months later, having failed to find any employment, he reënlisted as a private in a cavalry regiment. In 1809 he again set sail for India, and the fact that it took the regiment eleven months to reach Meerut marks the remoteness of the India of those days—an all-important element in the problem of its government. After some years of faithful service, he was again promoted from the ranks and given a commission in the Eighty-seventh or Royal Irish Regiment. It was of this regiment that some general officer, during the Peninsular War, remarked to the Duke of Wellington that they marched very unsteadily. "Yes," said the Duke, "but they fight like devils!" And this was still one of their characteristics while Shipp was with them in the second campaign of the Goorkha war, and in the Mahratta war of 1817–18. He says that the men showed a promptness to obey and a willingness to act which he had rarely met with, but he was uncertain whether this was due to the rigid discipline of the corps or was characteristic of the Irish as a nation.

With this regiment Shipp did gallant service for some years until in 1823 he entered into a turf speculation in partnership with one of his superior officers. As might have been expected, this arrangement resulted in quarrels and intemperate correspondence, and in the end a court-martial deprived Shipp of his commission. Misfortunes never come single, and when the letter from England confirming the findings of the court was delivered to him, he was mourning the recent loss of his wife and trying to console his two motherless babes: "And when my eager eyes met the words *dismissed the service*, I could not repress the tear of anguish, nor refrain from indulging in the most unavailing grief." Surely a most pathetic ending of a brilliant career! After his return to England he wrote these memoirs and

LICENSED TO UNZ.ORG
ELECTRONIC REPRODUCTION PROHIBITED

several military romances in order to eke out a trifling pension granted him by the East India Company, and finally became superintendent of the night watch in Liverpool, where he died in 1834.

Considering Shipp's lack of education, the story of his life is remarkably well told. His language is occasionally involved and high-flown, but he shows considerable descriptive power, and his natural shrewdness is constantly apparent. He points out that while the native troops under English officers are in many ways excellent soldiers, too great care cannot be taken to avoid interfering with the prejudices of their several castes, and with prophetic insight he predicts as probable the neglect of this precaution which actually caused the mutiny of 1857. Elsewhere he raises the question of the morality of sharp-shooting from behind cover, which, in his opinion, "treads close on the heels of cowardice if it does not come under the designation of actual murder." The tendency of modern strategy is decidedly in the direction of availing of natural cover or of providing artificial cover to offset the development of arms of precision, so that the conditions are much changed since Shipp's time; but it would be difficult in any case to establish a *moral* superiority in favor of any particular method of destroying an enemy based upon the risk run by the destroyer.

The Royal House of Stuart, illustrated by a series of Forty Plates in Colors drawn from Relics of the Stuarts by William Gibb, with an Introduction by John Skelton, C.B., LL.D., and Descriptive Notes by W. H. St. John Hope, M.A. Macmillan & Co. 1890. Folio, pp. xiv., 40.

THIS very handsome book is indirectly a memorial of the recent Stuart exhibition, just as we have to expect a similar book of Guelph antiquities, say eighteen months hence, as a sequel to the exhibition lately described in these columns. There is, however, very little mention of the immediate occasion for the present publication. It stands by itself, text and illustrations. The text consists chiefly of Mr. Skelton's introduction, which is a very interesting sketch of Scottish regal history from the accession of Robert the Bruce, or even an earlier time. The author is one who has tried his hand already at historical writing, and has endeavored especially to throw light on the disputed questions of Scottish chronicle. In these pages of general disquisition he has sought to avoid too plain an expression even of his very visible opinions. He shows an extreme desire to be fair, to be unprejudiced, to state or assert nothing that he has not an opportunity to prove. Thus, in the case of Mary Stuart, he gives his opinion regarding the probable plot against her, in which John Knox and the English Cecil are said to have taken part, but he is careful to explain and give references; and where he cannot do this, he shows a curious eagerness to state both sides and to bid the reader choose. Evidently he is a believer in the inevitableness of many of the great events of history. The fates were friendly, and one had only to follow their plain bidding and even blunders would not change the result. The fates were hostile, and no care, no honesty nor clear-sightedness would have saved the lost cause.

A student of the sad history of Scotland may be especially liable to this kind of opinion or feeling. Nowhere else is so forlorn a series of long royal minorities, of feeble princes appearing when the strongest and wisest were needed, of ill-directed and ill-managed struggles against an enemy of overwhelming force; and, when this enemy had disappeared, of government by the most selfish and grasping of oligarchies. The sketch before us, written by one who is in touch with the latest archæological research and historical thinking, is a valuable prompter and guide, and one might read the history of Scotland with the greater enjoyment and intelligence for this suggestive teaching. There is some attention to details, too, in spite of the limitation of the work to forty folio pages. Carlyle's opinion as to the value to the historian of authentic portraits of public personages—to which might have been added Michelet's practice of using them as authoritative documents—is disapproved; and in this connection an interesting reference to Lord Lovat's portrait and that of Claverhouse is made. Pen portraits, too, of some important persons are given, mostly very good. It is a desirable piece of reading, and one very different from the common perfunctory Introduction to a book of plates.

As to these plates, they are excellent color-pictures, and Mr. Gibb's repute is such that we can trust them implicitly for all that they show. It is open to question whether, in such cases as these, artistical effect ought not to give way to minute rendering of details; the student would be glad, in many instances, of a common photograph in addition to the color-print; but the plates are good and satisfactory, on the whole. As to the subjects, since they are brought together to commemorate the Stuarts, and not for their intrinsic value, the examples cannot vie in importance with the Spitzer catalogue, nor with 'Le Trésor Artistique de la France,' nor with Babelon's 'Antiquités de la Bibliothèque Nationale,' nor with any one of a score of books devoted to art and artistic archæology, pure and simple. On the other hand, some rather commonplace things, such as the works just named do not contain, are rather welcome to us here. A cuff of Lord Darnley's glove, or the embroidered leading-strings of James the Sixth of Scotland and First of England, or the harquebuse with which Bothwellhaugh shot the Regent Moray, are none of them rich and splendid enough for the book of Decorative Art; and yet one rather likes to see them. For another reason one is glad to see the large detailed drawings of the crown, the sword of state, and the sceptre of Scotland—objects which are repeated in very inadequate woodcuts till one is weary of the ugly pictures. And the ivory casket of the Cardinal of York, the cibarium called Malcolm Canmore's cup, the Indian powder-horn, and the embroideries generally, are well worthy of the costly plates that contain them.

We conclude that twenty-five of the forty plates deserve their place here; the subjects of the other fifteen would be sufficiently shown in small text-illustrations, or, in the case of the locks of hair of Charles I. and Mary Stewart, might as well be omitted.

The History of Herodotus. Translated into English by G. C. Macaulay, M.A. Vols. I, II. Macmillan & Co. 1890.

The Works of Xenophon. Translated by H. G. Dakyns, M.A. Vol. I. Macmillan & Co. 1890.

EACH of these translations makes good its right to existence, though their methods are curiously diverse. Each is painstaking, accurate, and scholarly; each is superior in various respects to any of its predecessors in English, and vastly superior to most of them. Each is not only exact and faithful, but, on the whole, attractive in style—a work which the gentleman of scholarly tastes will consult with pleasure as well as profit, and the scientific person who does not read Greek may quote without risking confusion of face.

It is interesting to observe how different are the processes of the two translators. Mr. Macaulay aims, "above all things, at faithfulness—faithfulness to the manner of expression and to the structure of sentences, as well as to the meaning of his author." He believes that it is a mistake to try to represent the simplicity of Herodotus and his occasional quaintness by affecting an archaic style, as Rawlinson has done, or to lose his poetic coloring "in an attempt by courtier phrase to render his style more noble." It is by no means easy to follow Herodotus closely and gracefully at the same time. The structure of many of his sentences is alien to that of the English, and others present intrinsic difficulties. The passage we cite from the 'Euterpe' shows some of these difficulties and the characteristic manner in which the present version meets them:

"The customs which they practise are derived from their fathers, and they do not acquire others in addition; but, besides other customary things among them which are worthy of mention, they have one song, that of Linos, the same who is sung of both in Phœnicia, and in Cyprus and elsewhere, having, however, a name different according to the various nations. This song agrees exactly with that which the Hellenes sing, calling on the name of Linos, so that *besides many other things about which I wonder among those matters which concern Egypt*, I wonder especially about this, namely, whence they got the song of Linos. It is evident, however, that they have sung this song from immemorial time, and in the Egyptian tongue Linos is called Maneros. The Egyptians told me that he was the only son of him who first became King of Egypt, and that he died before his time, and was honored with these lamentations by the Egyptians, and that this was their first and only song."

There is some awkwardness in the lines we italicize—an unnecessary awkwardness, we believe—but this arises from the conscientiousness of the scholar, not from a servile fidelity to the letter; and this conscientiousness has generally reaped its reward in reproducing, not only the tone and spirit, but the charm of the original. The brief notes of the translator and the extremely careful index of proper names have a special value for scholars. The text followed is that of Stein's critical edition; but the notes embody the results of a careful independent examination of the Medicean MS. in all places where questions about the text might concern a translator.

Mr. Dakyns has begun by falling in love with his author, and certainly this is a good beginning for a translator. His work, indeed, bears evidence of being a labor of love. It is full of enthusiasm; and whereas Mr. Macaulay confines himself austerely to his text and a minimum of useful notes, Mr. Dakyns introduces his favorite with a preface, a life, and a profusion of discussions and eulogies, which are executed with so much zeal and knowledge as to be generally pleasing and valuable. He adds to these some admirable maps and a running commentary of useful and scholarly footnotes. All this he does with the devotion of an ardent admirer. Nothing is too good for Xenophon. He admires his life, his character, and his style. He would have him rendered by Mr. Ruskin or by Mr. James Russell Lowell. To ourselves the notion of harnessing either of these highly imaginative stylists to such work seems whimsical in the extreme. Admitting all the charms of Xenophon's character and the impressiveness of his wonderful march, one cannot but feel, when reading his 'Hellenica' or his 'Memorabilia,' that, beside

LICENSED TO UNZ.ORG
ELECTRONIC REPRODUCTION PROHIBITED

Thucydides or Plato, he is an *esprit borné*. In the matter of style, Mr. Dakyns himself confesses his inequality, and his mixed vocabulary of old poetic words and neoterisms. In this connection, he remarks, with a certain artlessness of conception:

"If the correct Victorian English, as it is sometimes named, of our own land to day may be allowed to stand for the newer Attic of Isocrates's time, Xenophon is not unlike an able American of the moment, bringing forth from the treasure-house of language vocables new and old. At one time, and quite naturally, he will use words bearing the stamp of Elizabethan or of Puritan times; at another, he employs some specimen of the latest vernacular, which has hardly as yet received the consecration of literary usage. The combined dignity and freshness of a style so composite, employed by a writer of tact and delicacy such as Xenophon, might perhaps be represented by any one who could write as gracefully and freely as the author of 'My Study Windows.'"

It is evident that Mr. Lowell has mystified one of his English friends, and perhaps we have no right to dispel the mystery. Still, for the sake of accuracy, we may be allowed to suggest that Mr. Lowell uses his vocabulary deliberately, with certain artistic intentions, while it is noted by some ancient critics that Xenophon mingled his archaisms and neoterisms with the excusable carelessness of the old soldier and the much-travelled man of action. Mr. Dakyns, if we may say so without wounding the partiality of a lover, has shown himself perfectly competent to reproduce the beauties of Xenophon's style. He has chosen Goldsmith as his model in English—how happily may be seen everywhere as well as in the following passage:

"Leaving these quarters, they marched the whole of the next day over snow, and many of the men were afflicted with 'boulimia' (or hunger-faintness). Xenophon, who was guarding the rear, came upon some men who had dropt down, and he did not know what ailed them; but some one who was experienced in such matters suggested to him that they had evidently got boulimia; and if they *got something to eat*, they would revive. Then he went the round of the baggage train, and, *laying an embargo* on any eatables he could see, doled out with his own hands, or sent off other able-bodied agents to distribute to the sufferers, who as soon as they had *taken a mouthful got on their legs* again and continued the march. *On and on* they marched, and about dusk Cheirisophus reached a village, and surprised some women and girls who had come from the village to fetch water at the fountain outside the stockade."

We have italicized here certain turns of expression, and we venture to say that every one of them is more sprightly than the original. Mr. Macaulay would not have permitted himself these vivacities of idiom; the general effect of them is that the translation is lighter, more readable than Xenophon's own sentences; and this is the worst we have to say of a most skilful, accurate, and charming performance. The work is to be completed in four volumes, the first containing the 'Hellenica,' books i, ii, and the 'Anabasis.'

BOOKS OF THE WEEK.

Alden, Mrs. Miss Dee Dunmore Bryant. Boston: D. Lothrop Co. $1.50.
A Secret Mission: A Novel. Harper & Bros. 40 cents.
Black, W. Stand Fast, Craig-Royston! Harper & Bros.
Brendecke, Dr. F. Prof. Koch's Method to Cure Tuberculosis. Milwaukee: H. E. Haferkorn. 75 cents.
Bullen, A. H. Davison's Poetical Rhapsody. 2 vols. London: Geo. Bell & Sons.
Campbell, Helen. Anne Bradstreet and Her Time. Boston: D. Lothrop Co. $1.25.
De Vigny, Alfred. La Canne de Jonc. Boston: D. C. Heath & Co.
Dunckley, H. Lord Melbourne. Harper & Bros.
Edgeworth, Maria. Stories for Children. Scribner & Welford. $1.40.
Francke, Prof. K. Libelli de lite Imperatorum et Pontificum saeculi xi. Hanover: Hahn.
Gerard, E. and D. A Sensitive Plant. D. Appleton & Co. 50 cents.
Graham, W. Socialism, New and Old. D. Appleton & Co.
Harris, W. T. The Spiritual Sense of Dante's Divina Commedia. D. Appleton & Co. $1.
Hazell's Annual for 1891. Scribner & Welford. $1.50.
Hill, G. B. Boswell's Life of Johnson. 6 vols. Harper & Bros. $10.
Huggins, Capt. E. L. Winona: Poems. G. P. Putnam's Sons.
Lamb, C. and Mary. Tales from Shakespeare's Comedies. Harper & Bros. 50 cents.
Thompson, C. L. Etchings in Verse. A. D. F. Randolph & Co. $1.25.
Tolstoi, Count L. The Fruits of Culture. Boston: B. R. Tucker.
Tourgee, A. W. Murvale Eastman, Christian Socialist. Fords, Howard & Hulbert.
Treasure-House of Tales: Leigh Hunt, Mary W. Shelley, Douglas Jerrold, and B. Disraeli. 4 vols. Philadelphia: J. B. Lippincott Co.
Trelease, W. The Missouri Botanical Gardens. St. Louis, Mo.: Missouri Botanical Garden.
Veeder, Emily E. Her Brother Donnard. Philadelphia: J. B. Lippincott Co.
Ward, H. D. The New Senior at Andover. Boston: D. Lothrop Co. $1.25.
Warner, A. B. Patience. Philadelphia: J. B. Lippincott Co. $1.25.
Wedding's Basic Bessemer Progress. Scientific Publishing Co.
Wells, W. College Algebra. Leach, Shewell & Sanborn.
Wescott, Dr. J. H. Livy. Books I., XXI., and XXII. Boston: Allyn & Bacon. $1.25.
Whipple, G. M. History of the Salem Light Infantry from 1805 to 1890. Salem, Mass.: Essex Institute.
White, G. Sketch of the Philosophy of American Literature. Boston: Ginn & Co.
Winter, A. The New York State Reformatory in Elmira. London: Swan Sonnenschein & Co.
Wolff, J. Fifty Years, Three Months, Two Days. Thomas Y. Crowell & Co. $1.50.
Worcester, J. Lectures on Genesis and Exodus. Boston: Mass. New Church Union. 75 cents.

NEW VOLUME OF CHAMPLIN'S YOUNG FOLKS' CYCLOPÆDIA.

Vol. III. GAMES AND SPORTS. By JOHN D. CHAMPLIN, Jr., and ARTHUR E. BOSTWICK. 8vo, 830 pp. Fully illustrated. $2.50.

A compendium of all kinds of recreations, including indoor and outdoor games, athletic sports, simple chemical and mechanical amusements. Standard rules are given when accessible.

"No such collection has ever appeared before,"—*Nation.*

"The most satisfactory of which we are aware."—*Congregationalist.*

"Should form a part of every juvenile library."—*Hartford Post.*

"A mine of joy."—*N. Y. Tribune.*

HENRY HOLT & CO., Publishers, New York.

NOW READY:

Brugmann's Comparative Grammar of the INDO-GERMANIC LANGUAGES. Vol. II. Morphology, part I. Translated by CONWAY and ROUSE. 8vo, pp. xviii, 423. Cloth, $4.40 net.

PREVIOUSLY PUBLISHED:

Vol. I. Introduction and Phonology. Translated by JOSEPH WRIGHT. $5.00 net.

". . . Brugmann's book forms one of the indispensable tools of every student of Indo-Germanic Philology."—*G. M——r. (Literar. Centralblatt, 1887, No. 8.)*

(From the N. Y. Nation.)

The significance of this masterwork of Brugmann for the progress of science is to be measured, not so much by the new material it contains, nor by any definite settlement of long-disputed questions it may offer, as by its complete control of the entire existing material of the science, by its deftness in assorting it, and its priceless clearness in the statement of results. It represents the complete triumph of an ordinary mind over the most distracted material. Seldom are united in one man as in the author so comprehensive and exactingly thorough an acquaintance with the detail of his subject, and so fine a sense for the relation of the part to a scheme of the whole.

B. WESTERMANN & CO.,
812 BROADWAY, NEW YORK,
PUBLISHERS AND IMPORTERS.

A CHILD'S ROMANCE.

By PIERRE LOTI. Authorized edition. One vol., 16mo, paper, 50 cents; 12mo, cloth, $1.00.

Sent by mail, postpaid, on receipt of price.

W. S. GOTTSBERGER & CO., Publishers,
11 Murray Street, New York.

NOW READY:

Anne Bradstreet

AND HER TIME.

By HELEN CAMPBELL.

1 vol., 12mo, ... $1.50

A charming biographical sketch and study of the earliest of America's female writers, "the grandmother of American literature." Anne Bradstreet's descendants number some of America's most distinguished men of letters—the Danas, the Channings, the Buckminsters, Oliver Wendell Holmes, Wendell Phillips, and others of lesser note. Mrs. Campbell has told her story with all the vigor and interest that could be expected from so earnest a writer, and has inspired the musty records of the past with life and spirit, making for the reader of to-day a very real and vital person of that old-time champion of woman's possibilities, Mistress Anne Bradstreet of Andover.

D. LOTHROP COMPANY, Pubs.
BOSTON.

Turkish Compassionate Fund,
304 Fifth Avenue, near 31st St.

Art HAND Embroideries
FOR
Ball-Dresses, House-Decoration, Table-Linen, etc.

These embroideries are of exquisite texture, color, and design. Greater part have never before been seen in this country, and *nowhere* are they sold in *stores*.

Dyspepsia

HORSFORD'S
ACID PHOSPHATE.

In dyspepsia the stomach fails to assimilate the food. The Acid Phosphate assists the weakened stomach, making the process of digestion natural and easy.

Dr. R. S. McCOMB, Philadelphia, says: "Used it in nervous dyspepsia, with success."

Dr. W. S. LEONARD, Hinsdale, N. H., says: "The best remedy for dyspepsia that has ever come under my notice."

Dr. T. H. ANDREWS, Jefferson Medical College, Philadelphia, says: "A wonderful remedy, which gave me most gratifying results in the worst forms of dyspepsia."

Descriptive pamphlet free.

Rumford Chemical Works, Providence, R. I.

Beware of Substitutes and Imitations.

CAUTION: Be sure the word "Horsford's" is printed on the label. All others are spurious. Never sold in bulk.

Letters of Credit. We buy and sell bills of exchange on and make cable transfers of money to Europe, Australia, and the West Indies, also make collections and issue Commercial and Travellers' Credits, available in all parts of the world.

Brown Brothers & Co., Bankers,
NO. 59 WALL STREET, NEW YORK.

LICENSED TO UNZ.ORG
ELECTRONIC REPRODUCTION PROHIBITED

LOWELL'S WORKS.

NEW RIVERSIDE EDITION.

LITERARY ESSAYS, 4 vols.
POLITICAL ESSAYS, 1 vol.
LITERARY AND POLITICAL ADDRESSES, 1 vol.
POEMS, 4 vols.

The last volume of prose has a very full index, and the last volume of poems has a table of first lines.

10 vols. Crown 8vo, $1.50 each. The set, cloth, $15.00; half calf, $27.50; half calf, gilt, $30.00; half levant, $40.00.

*** *For sale by all Booksellers. Sent by mail, post-paid, on receipt of price by the publishers,*

Houghton, Mifflin & Co., Boston.

11 East Seventeenth St., New York.

New German Texts. JUST READY.

STORM'S IMMENSEE. With Notes and Vocabulary by Wilhelm Bernhardt, Ph.D., of the Washington, D. C., High School. Cloth, 50 cents; paper 30 cents.
RIEHL'S FLUCH DER SCHONHEIT. With Notes by Calvin Thomas, Professor of German Language and Literature in Univ. of Mich. Paper, 25 cents.
HEINE'S POEMS. Selected and annotated by Professor H. S. White of Cornell Univ. Cloth, 75 cents.
SCHILLER'S DER GEISTERSEHER. With Notes by Prof. E. S. Joynes of South Carolina College.

READY SOON:

HILLERN'S HOHER ALS DIE KIRCHE, with Notes.
STIFTER'S DAS HAIDEDORF, with Notes.
GORE'S SCIENTIFIC GERMAN READER, with Notes and Glossary.

Correspondence with teachers and professors of German is solicited.

D. C. HEATH & CO., Publishers,
5 Somerset St., Boston.

HAVE YOU A COPY?

Mr. Henry G. Taylor, Newtown, writes us: "That is a wonderfully useful little book—

Books of the Bible Analyzed,

you are offering to the world. I hope you are selling it by the myriad."

At all bookstores, or sent by publisher on receipt of 21 cents.

H. T. FREAUFF, Easton, Pa.

American News Co. and J. B. Lippincott Co. supply the trade.

BERMUDA.

The now far-famed BERMUDAS, with cable communication and equable winter temperature of seventy degrees, beautiful scenery, and one hundred miles of good roads, headquarters of the British army and navy of the Atlantic Squadron, is unrivalled in its attractiveness, reached by the magnificent iron steamers

ORINOCO or TRINIDAD,

in sixty hours from New York. The Tropical Islands, including

St. Kitts, Martinique, Barbados, and Trinidad,

also afford beautiful and interesting tours, all reached by steamships of the Quebec Steamship Company from New York.

For descriptive pamphlets and dates of sailing apply to

A. EMILIUS OUTERBRIDGE & CO., Agents,
39 Broadway, New York,
or THOMAS COOK & SONS,
261 Broadway, New York.

MATTHEW ARNOLD IN THE "NINETEENTH CENTURY."

"The New York NATION—a newspaper which I read regularly and with profit, a newspaper which is the best, so far as my experience goes, of all American newspapers, and one of the best newspapers anywhere."

MEMORIAL TABLETS
Of all Descriptions. Send for Circulars.
J. & R. LAMB, 59 Carmine St., N. Y.

TOLSTOI ON SOCIAL PROBLEMS.

BENJ. R. TUCKER,
P. O. Box 3366, Boston, Mass.,
HAS JUST PUBLISHED:

CHURCH AND STATE,

And Other Essays,

—INCLUDING—

1. *Church and State.* 2. *Money.* 3. *Man and Woman: Their Respective Functions.* 4. *The Mother.* 5. *A Second Supplement to the Kreutzer Sonata.*

By COUNT LEO TOLSTOI.

"*Church and State*" is translated by authorization from Tolstoi's own manuscript. It was written several years ago, but it being *the author's boldest work, severely denunciatory of the powers that be,* he has kept it in manuscript in consequence of the arbitrary regime in Russia. Now he has determined to publish it in the United States. It is an uncompromising assault upon both Church and State from the standpoint of Christ's teachings.

Price, in Cloth, 50c.; in Paper, 25c.

For sale by all booksellers, or mailed by Publisher on receipt of price. MENTION THIS PAPER.

TIMELY PAMPHLETS

REPRINTED FROM

THE NEW YORK EVENING POST.

I.

The McKinley Alphabet.

691 articles in common use on which Duties have been increased. The Old and New Rates. Price, 2 cents a copy; $1.75 a hundred; postage or expressage extra.

II.

Bishop Potter's Address.

Centennial of Washington's Inauguration, St. Paul's Church, New York. One cent each in small or large quantities; postage extra, one cent for five copies.

III.

Pensions and Pension Laws.

A Letter by Gen. Francis C. Barlow. 2 cents a copy. $1.50 per hundred copies, postage prepaid.

IV.

A Good Farm for Nothing.

Reasons for the Decline of Agriculture and Farm Values in New England. By Judge Nott of the U. S. Court of Claims. One cent each in small or large quantities; postage extra, one cent for five copies.

Address

EVENING POST PUBLISHING CO.,
208 Broadway, New York.

B. WESTERMANN & CO.,

Importers and Publishers,
812 BROADWAY, NEW YORK.

Now Ready,
Part I: *English-German* pp. 1–xxxii, 1–192, A–Bok,
to be followed by the first part of the *German-English* volume, next month, of

FLÜGEL'S Larger German-English and English-German Dictionary.

AN ENTIRELY NEW EDITION.

Will be published in 12 parts at $1.00 each. Special terms for advance orders and Public and College Libraries.

Prospectus and Specimen Pages on application,

CHEAPEST BOOKSTORE IN THE WORLD.

82,672 MAGNIFICENT HOLIDAY BOOKS
AT OUR PRICE.
138,672 BIBLES, PRAYER-BOOKS, ETC.,
AT YOUR PRICE.
125,876 MAGNIFICENT JUVENILES
AT ANY PRICE.
HOLIDAY CATALOGUE FREE.

LEGGAT BROTHERS,

81 CHAMBERS ST., - - NEW YORK,
Three doors from Broadway.

GUSTAV E. STECHERT,

Importer of Books and Periodicals

828 Broadway, New York.

Employs no agents in Europe, but has his OWN OFFICES at

London: 30 Wellington Street, Strand, W. C.;
Leipzig: Hospital Strasse, 10,

and thus has facilities SUPERIOR to those of any other firm.

Books for Libraries, Professors, and Students a specialty. Also rare and scarce books and sets of periodicals.

S. B. LUYSTER,

98 NASSAU STREET, NEW YORK,
AND LONDON, ENGLAND,
Importer of Standard English Books,
OLD AND NEW.

Catalogues issued bi-monthly, and sent gratis to any address, on application.

F. W. CHRISTERN,

254 Fifth Ave., between 28th and 29th Sts., New York.

Importer of Foreign Books, Agent for the leading Paris Publishers, Tauchnitz's British Authors, Teubner's Greek and Latin Classics. Catalogues of stock mailed on demand. A large assortment always on hand, and new books received from Paris and Leipzig as soon as issued.

ELLIS & ELVEY,

29 NEW BOND STREET, LONDON, ENGLAND,
Dealers in Choice Books and MSS.

Catalogues issued periodically and forwarded regularly to purchasers. Early illuminated MSS.—XVth Century Books, with woodcuts—Horæ on vellum—Fine bindings—Rare Americana, etc., etc.

E. F. BONAVENTURE,

BOOKS AND PRINTS,
WEST 31ST ST., COR. B'WAY, NEW YORK.

Catalogues mailed on receipt of 10 cents.

DUPRAT & CO.,

Importers of Fine Books

349 5TH AVENUE, NEW YORK.

School of Drawing and Painting,

AND DEPARTMENT OF DECORATIVE DESIGN,
MUSEUM OF FINE ARTS, BOSTON.

For circulars and detailed information apply to the manager.

LICENSED TO UNZ.ORG
ELECTRONIC REPRODUCTION PROHIBITED